

**SALESFORCE PERSONALITY TRAITS, FEEDBACK SEEKING  
BEHAVIOUR GOAL COMMITMENT AND SALES PERFORMANCE  
AMONG INSURANCE SALES AGENTS IN MOMBASA COUNTY, KENYA**

**BY**

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**A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF BUSINESS AND  
ECONOMICS, DEPARTMENT OF MARKETING AND LOGISTICS  
MANAGEMENT IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE  
REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF  
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY DEGREE IN  
BUSINESS MANAGEMENT**

**MOI UNIVERSITY**

**SEPTEMBER, 2019**

## DECLARATION

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**DEDICATION**

To Ann Cynthia, Justin, Kevin, Valentine, Victor, Margaret, Steve, Jayden and  
Kylia. May you strive to achieve more than this.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I thank Almighty God for his favour, strength and renewed mercies over my life that has enabled me to come this far. This study reflects the support and input from many people. I owe a great deal to my supervisors Prof Charles Lagat and Prof Michael Korir. I am so grateful for their consistent guidance and support with all patient, providing encouragement, technical suggestions and ideas for continuous improvement. I am indebted to the school of Business and Economics Moi University for giving me the opportunity of being their valued student over the years and for all the support I have received.

I equally appreciate Dr. Ronald Bonuke and all my classmates for their constructive criticism, advice and assistance during my study session.

Most importantly, my family; who have been very supportive and encouraging. My lovely daughter Cynthia for her love, support and being very understanding. My mum Anneceta, for always believing in me. My siblings thank you so much for your prayers and support. To my nieces and Nephews, you have always been my number one fans and I thank God that I have never disappointed you and remain to be your role model.

Finally, to all my students in the various fields at different institutions that I have taught over the years, you have made me to be the great teacher I am today .May you achieve more.

God bless you all.

## ABSTRACT

In the contemporary marketing environment, Salesforce Performance is crucial if a company is to remain competitive. Of late, enhancing Sales Performance and hiring the right sales people based on their Personality traits is highly valued given the ever growing pressure of meeting set Sales targets within the insurance sector. Studies have documented that Salesforce Personality Traits have an effect on Sales Performance; however, limited empirical evidence exists to show about the Moderated Mediation effect of Feedback Seeking Behaviour and Goal Commitment on the indirect relationship between Salesforce Personality Traits and Sales Performance. The general objective was to investigate the Moderated Mediation effect of Feedback Seeking Behaviour and Goal Commitment on the indirect relationship between Salesforce Personality Traits and Sales Performance. The study was guided by: Self Determination, Goal Setting and Vroom Expectancy Theories. The study was approached from a positivism research philosophy point of view. The study utilized explanatory research design targeting 448 insurance Sales Agents in Mombasa County, Kenya. Using conditional process analysis, model 4 and model 58 was used. The study found that Self-Efficacy ( $\beta=0.44, p<0.00$ ), Proactive Personality ( $\beta=0.27, p<0.00$ ) Goal Commitment ( $\beta=0.15, p<0.00$ ;  $\beta=0.28, p<0.00$ ;  $\beta=0.20, p<0.00$ ), had a positive and significant direct effect on Sales Performance. There was a Moderation effect of Feedback seeking Behaviour on the relationship between Self-Efficacy ( $\beta=0.11, p<0.01$ ), Locus of Control ( $\beta = -0.10, p< 0.00$ ), and Proactive Personality ( $\beta=-0.11, p<0.00$ ) on Goal Commitment. Further, the study confirmed a Mediating effect of Goal Commitment on the indirect relationship between Self-Efficacy and Sales Performance ( $\beta = 0.05, CI= [0.01, 0.10]$ ), and Proactive Personality and Sales Performance ( $\beta = 0.07, CI= [0.03, 0.11]$ ). The study also confirmed that Feedback Seeking Behaviour does have a significant Moderating effect on the indirect relationship between Self-Efficacy and Sales Performance via Goal Commitment ( $\beta = -0.73, CI = [0.01, 0.11]$ ) and Proactive Personality ( $\beta = -0.73, CI = [0.02, 0.11]$ ) thus providing new knowledge in scholarly literature that Goal Commitment Mediates the relationship between Self-Efficacy, Proactive Personalities and Sales Performance; Feedback Seeking Behavior Moderates the Relationship Between Self-Efficacy and Goal Commitment, Locus of Control and Goal Commitment and Proactive Personalities and Goal Commitment, and it has a significant Moderating effect on the indirect relationship between Self-Efficacy and Sales Performance via Goal Commitment and Proactive Personalities and Sales Performance via Goal Commitment. The findings of this study reveal strong implications for Organizational Leaders and Managers in the insurance industry in relation to Salesforce Personality Traits, Goal Commitment, and Feedback Seeking Behavior in enhancing Sales Performance. Managers therefore need to help their sales persons to know the right thing to do in every selling situation through indoor training and other programs as it helps them feel confident of their ability to perform their sales job well and perform effectively on many different tasks given to them. A similar study is recommended focusing on other dimensions of Personality Traits.

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**ABBREVIATION AND ACRONYMNS**

<b>A I B K:</b>	Association of Insurance Brokers in Kenya
<b>A K I:</b>	Association of Kenya Insurers
<b>E T:</b>	Expectancy Theory
<b>F S B:</b>	Feedback Seeking Behaviour
<b>G C:</b>	Goal Commitment
<b>I R A:</b>	Insurance Regulatory Authority
<b>LOC:</b>	Locus of Control
<b>PAP:</b>	Proactive Personalities
<b>S D T:</b>	Self-determination Theory
<b>SE:</b>	Self efficacy
<b>SP:</b>	Sales performance

## OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS

- Sales Performance:** Sales performance is the measurement of sales activities against the goals outlined in the sales plan Churchill *et al.*, as cited in Day (2011)
- Personality:** Refers to the way an individual interacts, reacts and behaves with others and is often exhibited through measurable traits (Crysel *et al.*, 2012). Research evidence has revealed that in uncertain circumstances, personality traits guide an individual's decision making behaviour (Back & Seaker, 2004).
- Traits:** Traits are defined by Sharp *et al.*, (2011) as a person's characteristics of thinking, emotion and behavior that do not change with time and bring out people's behaviours in different environments. The psychological characteristics of a person that enhance their ability to perform are one's personal characteristics according to Churchill *et al.*, as cited in Day (2011).
- Personality traits:** Represents a process of change and it relates to the psychological growth and development of individuals (Armstrong *et al.*, 2015: Johnston and Marshall, 2016). Personality factors are extremely important in today's competitive organizational settings. Often the 'wrong' kind of personality proves disastrous and causes undesirable tensions and worries in organization
- Self-Efficacy:** Defined as the self-perceptions of a sales person with regards to his/her ability to cope with any situation as it arises. Fall and Roussel, (2014). Viewed self-efficacy as self-confidence. Bandura,

(2013) defined self-efficacy as a person's belief that she/he is capable of performing a particular task successfully

**Locus of Control:** Refers to the extent to which sales people believe that they can decide their individual outcome (Sheffer *et al.*, 2012). Ru Hsu, (2011) defined locus of control as the extent to which individuals believe that they have control over their own destiny. In other words, locus of control refers to the circumstances that individuals attribute their success and failures to.

**Proactive personality-** According to Bakker, Arnold Tims and Daantje, (2012), proactive personality is defined as the sales person's tendency to fix what is in the wrong, change things and use well planned ideas to solve problems.

**Goal Commitment:** The determination that one puts to achieve a certain goal (Sholihin *et al.*, 2011; Locke and Latham, 2013) or the will to put more effort to ensure that the goals set are achieved is 'goal commitment (Zimmerman, 2011; Zhang *et al.*, 2012). Whatever a person puts an effort to try and do is termed as goal. Emotions and desire motivates people to put efforts in whatever they do (Locke and Latham, 2013).

**Feedback seeking Behaviour:** Feedback-seeking behaviour can be defined as the conscious devotion of effort towards determining the correctness and adequacy of one's behaviours for attaining valued goals (De Stobbeleir *et al.*, 2011).



**Insurance agents:** Insurance Agents are the first line operators in the Insurance sector and they play a very critical role in the distribution and uptake of Insurance products. They offer the “last mile” connection with the Policyholders where personalized service come handy when closing Insurance contracts. Their role is to sell insurance; insurance is sold, not bought! Insurance is sold one on one and not through mass selling. Some policies such as Life Assurance and investments require conviction and persuasion from sellers. Therefore an insurance agent must be able to sell. (IRA Report, 2016).

## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **INTRODUCTION**

#### **1.0 Overview**

This chapter presents the background of the study, statement of the research problem, purpose of the study, objectives, research hypotheses, scope and significance of the study.

#### **1.1 Background of the Study**

All sales organizations have a goal to ensure that they raise their performance rate and at the same time meet their revenue targets. Therefore, they have obligations to ensure that the revenue targets are met in time by ensuring that they improve their sales processes that include; strategic plans, territory allocation, resource planning and compensation programming. Richard (2012), Walsh & Lipinski (2013) define performance as an individual's extent or show of the exact work performed. Most organizations concentrate more on good performance as businesses are in an era of intensifying competition and fierce negotiations with buyers therefore; use of tactical selling simply does not apply. This era does not involve buyers in the decision making process and most of their concentration is on ensuring that value is created for an effective sales success (Odunlami, 2011, Lilly & Juma, 2014).

While considering sales performance, two main factors apply; the outcome dimension and the behavioral dimension. A positive link has been created between sales performance and the level of people's involvement in their job due to sales outcome dimension that has resulted to people seeing it as evidence to people's behavioral performance (Berhe & Jooh, 2014). This is much elaborated by the fact that if the sales people increase efforts in their jobs, they therefore create an effect on job

performance (Silva, 2013 & Richard 2012). According to Richard (2012), performance is measured by how effective activities in an organization are performed and their results to attain a specific goal. Activities in organizations are well understood through management and improvement that measure performance. The well doing of an organization is showed by how effective the measurement of performance is, how great the organization is performing, if the organization goals are being met, if the customers are satisfied, if there is statistical control in the processes and if the improvements done are effective and efficient (Srivastava, Fahey & Christensen, 2011).

Every organization relies on the efforts and the results of sales personnel as through them they are able to meet the costs of revenue that keeps the organization operating. An organization without sales personnel does not meet its objectives and it's therefore necessary to ensure that their performance is excellent. The use of internet by most sales personnel has made it easier for customers to access information and thus better informed. The main purpose of sales people is to ensure that they transfer information and knowledge about their products to the customers but the main challenge that they face is access to sales which hinders their efforts (Rust *et al.*, 2014).

The customers then expect the sales people to communicate more on their products and provide details on how their products solve explicit and latent problems. Therefore sales people must possess knowledge and skills to be able to explain the purpose of their products and how they solve the customers' problems (Teece *et al.*, 2015). The conversations that take place between customers and the sales people are the ones that help customers to make decisions on whether the products are of importance to them and if they will help them in solving their problems (Odunlami, 2011).

When quality and quantity of sales is closed at a specific point that is what is termed as a good sales performance. Selling-related knowledge, degree of adaptiveness, role ambiguity, cognitive aptitude and work engagement were the five main drivers found to affect the level of a good sales performance combined with efforts by the sales people as per a study done by Sung and Choi, (2011).

The main roles of sales personnel are generation income and revenue in their organizations. Most organizations do not value the efforts of the sales personnel accordingly as they dwell on training and developing the personnel ignoring rewarding them which is an important factor to consider. Sales personnel do not perform the same even when the organization provides equal grounds of tools, educational level and the propensity to work (Cotter & Fritzsche, 2014). It therefore shows that the personalities of sales people affect their level of success. All through the decades, discussion has continued on how salesman personality and sales performance correlate.

The psychological characteristics of a person that enable them to perform are defined by Soldz & Vaillant, (2012) as the Salesman personality characteristics. Wiley and Carolyn, (2014) on the other hand define sales personality as the ability of a person to perform his/her duties with personal uniqueness and own capabilities to sell. These capabilities are driven by the goals set that lead to motivation as without motivation the goals would either not be met or will take more time than required. The greatest motivational device is the will to meet a certain goal that results to good performance and success. Goals make people to focus attention, to exert more efforts, to concur challenges and engage in development of the strategies set (Latham & Pinder, 2011).

There are three main dimensions that define a person's personality. The first are the physical appearances of a person such as; height, weight or age. The second dimensions are those associated with how a person thinks, feels and behaves which are distinctive and attribute patterns that affect how he/she interacts with the environment on own personal style and influence (Furnhamand & Fudge, 2012). Lastly, are the dimensions that are connected to a person's empathy, ego, self-efficacy, locus of control, sociability and self-monitoring (Markman & Baron, 2013).

There are three claims that are associated with goal setting. The first claim is that high goals set lead to a better performance compared to low goals. The second claim states that goal difficulty has a significant link with sales performance. The third claim states that there are other additional factors that affect performance which are feedback and monetary incentives (Locke & Latham, 2013). Despite the fact that empirical research has showed how effectively the three dimensions support the goal setting theory, other factors have been identified by researchers that moderate how effective goal setting is on improvement of performance. The factors are goal commitment, feedback, and task complexity. Goal commitment and goal-performance have a strong relationship in that sales personnel must possess commitment to attain great performance. The significance of goal commitment has been brought by most of the empirical researches done. A meta-analysis was done and found that the relationship between goal setting and performance was moderated by goal commitment (Sholihin *et al.*, 2011). The authors also found that goal commitment was the moderating factor when goal difficulty was high to goal performance compared to when goal difficulty was low. This therefore explained that to attain superior performance of goals, then strong commitment was also needed. When positive behavior is experienced in the achievement of a goal, it results to reinforcing

behaviors while negative behavior results to behavior modification. These feedbacks that the organizations receive help them evaluate the sales personnel's' performance in the work environment.

When the organization fails to evaluate and ensure that the sales behaviors are in line, the sales personnel therefore engages in a try and error method to try and please his/her superiors and also to achieve his/her goals (Yürür & Sarikaya, 2012). It is crucial stages for the superiors to evaluate one's character and behaviors effectively as sometimes the personnel tend to pretend and not show their real individual factors. This leads to most organizations letting their employees manage their own performance in the context to direct goal related activities and performance as they are responsible of setting their own standards and thus monitoring them according to the self-determination theory (Vohs & Baumeister, 2014).

There have discussions since the 20<sup>th</sup> century that arose from the connection that exists between salesman personality and sales performance (Forsyth *et al.*, 2012). Researches done between the 1980s and the 90s, found a positive relation between the two. The only factor that seemed to bring about arguments and disagreements between the researchers was the definition of the term 'personality'. Different researchers defined it in different perspectives. This was because the authors found it as a main determinant in the measuring of peoples' performance. The way one views and understands him/herself, his manner of interaction with other people and how he/she reacts to situations was what a sales man personality was concluded to be.

A person's characteristics, lasting patterns of thinking, emotions and behaviors that do not change within a specified time and on different situations are what Funder, (2001) defined as traits. The psychological characteristics of a person that enable them to

perform are defined by Soldz & Vaillant, (2012) as the Salesman personality characteristics. Wiley and Carolyn (2014) as cited in Salleh & Kamaruddin (2011) on the other hand define sales personality as the ability of a person to perform his/her duties with personal uniqueness and own capabilities to sell.

A person's personality is defined by how he/she endures in changing patterns and environments. Most organizations support sales personnel personalities by providing training on recruits and hiring of personnel. There are three main dimensions that define a person's personality. The first are the physical appearances of a person such as; height, weight or age. The second dimensions are those associated with how a person thinks, feels and behaves which are distinctive and attribute patterns that affect how he/she interacts with the environment on own personal style and influence (Mulki *et al.*, 2015).

A person's personality distinctiveness is controlled by empathy, ego, and self-efficacy, locus of control, sociability and self-monitoring (Markman & Baron, 2013). Another dimension that defines a person's personality is the ability to possess verbal intelligence, mathematical ability and musical orientation which are connected to the mind's ability or psychological achievement. This study focused mostly on distinctive behavioral characteristics of salespersons (self-efficacy, locus of control and proactive personality influence on sales performance) on the second category.

The fact that the Sales force personality traits-sales performance relationship has continued to attract a number of empirical studies highlights the importance of gaining greater understanding of this relationship by both marketers and scholars (Mulki *et al.*, 2015). This present study investigated the influence of sales force

personality traits on sales performance mediated and moderated by goal commitment and feedback seeking behavior in the insurance companies in Kenya.

### **1.1.1 Insurance Industry**

Insurance is the process through which individuals known as insurers accept the financial risk of another individual insured for consideration in the form of premiums paid. Within any given economy, the insurance industry is an essential agent for sustainable economic growth and development (Haufler, 2013). Insurance has its origins among the Chinese and Babylonian traders in the 3<sup>rd</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> millennia BC, respectively. To ensure that they did not lose their goods should a ship capsize, Chinese merchants would redistribute the goods among many vessels to limit the loss. The early Babylonian sailing merchants on the other hand developed a system where on receiving a loan to fund a shipment, the merchant would pay the lender an additional sum in exchange for the lender's guarantee to cancel the loan should the shipment be stolen or lost at sea (Vaughan, 1997).

Globally, the insurance industry is dominated by wealthy developed countries. In fact, the Group of Seven (G7) alone accounts for almost 65% of the world's insurance premiums even though it covers just over 10% of the world's population (KPMG, 2014). The insurance industry is dominated by companies from the developed nations with Berkshire Hathaway (Property/casualty insurance) of USA, AXA (Life/health Insurance) of France and Allianz (Property/casualty insurance) of Germany leading in first, second and third place respectively (Global Fortune 500, 2015). In Africa, South Africa, Morocco, Nigeria and Egypt are the leading countries in gross insurance premiums with penetration rates of 14.28%, 2.97%, 0.68% and 0.68% respectively (KPMG, 2014).



### **1.1.2 Insurance Industry in Kenya**

Kenya's insurance industry ranked fourth highest in Africa in terms of penetration after South Africa, Namibia and Mauritius. The insurance industry in Kenya consists of a number of players namely; 49 insurance companies (including foreign reinsurance companies' operating liaison offices in Kenya) and 3 reinsurance companies, 4,847 intermediaries (insurance brokers including foreign reinsurance brokers authorized to run liaison offices, medical insurance providers, and insurance agents) and 298 other service providers (insurance investigators, motor assessors, insurance surveyors, loss adjusters, claims settling agents and risk managers) (IRA, 2013). In Kenya, the penetration stands at this 3.44% (Association of Kenya Insurers, 2013) in 2013. The uptake of insurance products in Kenya is impacted by several factors. These include awareness, access, cost and complexity of the products. Kenya's insurance industry has made efforts to ensure that it improves its service delivery over the years by offering new products and guaranteeing consumers of a world-class services delivery (Association of Kenya Insurers, 2013). New approaches to ethics, management and growth among the insurance investments in Kenya have been ensured by the establishment of the Insurance Regulatory Authority (IRA) which replaced Commissioner of Insurance which is under the Ministry of Finance. Many customers are encouraged to take up the insurance investment services as the industry operators emboldened the Association of Kenya Insurers (AKI) and the Association of Insurance Brokers in Kenya (AIBK) of which their efforts are paying off.

Products and services quality is being enhanced by the practitioners and also improving their market penetration strategies. This has been warmly welcomed by the initiatives that have showed positive results. Most of the insurers are concentrating on reclaiming a good image that was destroyed by rogue practitioners who planted a seed

of bad image of the industry that slowed their services across the country. Efforts are being made to reclaim the industry's image by joining hands with the AKI, IRA and the AIBK by laying down new strategies that are being positively embraced by customers across the country to ensure good services are offered and food service delivery is guaranteed for a long period of time.

The bodies have developed new products that are friendly to the customers and also improving the way service delivery is offered to enhance the market in consultation with the regulator, agents' body and member associations. According to Christopher as cited in Appleman, *et al.*, (2015), Insurance companies have insurance agents who earn commissions from selling their insurance products directly to the consumer. The commission that the agents earn from the insurance companies is what motivates them to work hard to make profits on their side Limra, (2010). Despite their efforts, there are challenges that the agents face in delivery of services which are personal development, personal sales volumes and retention of agents.

The insurance industry has recorded a very high turnover over the past as noted by Limra (2010). It has been brought to concern by most managers that most of the employees recruited as sales representatives in the insurance industry, only about 5% out of the 100% become successful as sale representatives and also remain in the industry while about 2% become high sales representative achievers in the industry (Limra, 2010). It has also been noted that the commission earners earn much more compared to the salaried people but despite this fact, most young people find it a challenge to become successful as sales representatives as most of them wish to earn easy and fast money especially those from school. Insurance has been in existence from the longest period of time. The earliest insurance practices were recorded in Europe over a thousand years ago which was the marine insurance practice. In Kenya,

insurance came to be known around the 20<sup>th</sup> century. Insurance practices in Kenya were introduced by European settlers. The London and Lancashire Insurance Company were the first to appoint agents in Nairobi, Kenya in fire business which was in 1904. The Royal Exchange Assurance followed suit and opened a branch in Nairobi in 1922 and was later on followed by the Commercial Union in 1929 Wachira, (2014). Stability was experienced in Kenya in the insurance industry until later on in the 1970s. Stability was due to little demand for services, standardized products offered, minimal supervision from the government and low competition.

Tremendous challenges began to be experienced in the industry in the 1978 due to the government's directive of ensuring that all foreign insurance companies to incorporate to Kenya by 1980 and the introduction of act CAP 487 of the laws of Kenya in the insurance industry. Due to the incorporation requirement by the government, many companies sprung in the 1980 and many others were incorporated. This move by the government led to the growth of insurance companies from 15 in 1978 to 39 in 2001 and by 2012 they were more than 40. Another factor that led to immense growth of companies and competition was the collapse of the giant state owned Kenya National Assurance in 1996. Scandals began on how medical insurers provided their services and later on Strategies folded up in 2003 and 2005 which showed controversial circumstances. Despite the development being experienced as years pass by, the products being offered to customers who are mostly concentrated in urban areas are traditional. This has led to severe competition as the number of insurance companies is increasing by the day and yet the customers seeking the services are not increasing with the same rate AKI report, (2013).

The Association of Kenya Insurers (AKI) and The Association of Kenya Insurance Brokers of Kenya (AIBK) are the two main associations. The Insurance Regulatory Authority acts as the industry's regulating body. For increase of new markets and penetration, there is need for more widening of the territorial limits of operation have widened with the assistance of the signing up of the East Africa Protocol accord in 2010. There is need for personal development from the sales agents who are in the insurance industry so that they can have a chance to be part of the growth and development of the industry and also remain relevant as lack of personal development was cited as the main factor that affects the agents retention in the industry's development as observed by the AKI report, (2013).

## **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

All sales organizations have a goal to ensure that they raise their performance and at the same time meet their revenue targets. They rely much on the efforts and the results of sales personnel as through them they are able to meet the costs of revenue that keeps the organization operating therefore, they have obligations to ensure that the revenue targets are met in time by ensuring that they improve their sales processes by understanding their sales person's behaviors

Previous studies show different perspectives towards understanding salespeople's performance. Churchill *et al.*, as cited in Day (2011) discussed the antecedents of sales performance, this has been a landmark paper and has shaped academic and managerial thinking on sales management. Allen and Helms, (2011) indicated that maintaining customer relationships, selling, working with distributors, entertainment, attending meetings, servicing products, working with orders, servicing accounts, travel, communication/information, training and recruiting were the list of activities

that determined a successful sales person. Evans *et al.*, (2012) added that sales volume and ability to reach quotas, customer relations and management of expense accounts, company knowledge and customer knowledge, product knowledge and competitor knowledge, time management and planning were other activities that also determined a successful sales person.

A study done by Rothmann & Coetzer, (2013) directly analyzed the relationship between sales performance and personality characteristics. The performance of sales people was found to be significantly impacted by personality characteristics. Another study was done by Furnham & Fudge, (2012), Verbeke *et al.*, (2011) on finding out the impact personality had on the performance of sales people which made use of the big five factor model. Malhotra & Dash, (2011) mentioned that some of the organizations have taken what they have learned and the position they are to come up with themes of research which may provide references to the future researchers and academicians in selling. Researches such as Bandura (2013), Locke & Latham as cited in Ingram *et al.*, (2012) in various disciplines have researched on salesman personality and sales performance. Beer and Brooks, (2011) indicates that people are differentiated by their behavior and that results to finding out who can do a better job than the other. The main reason why personality is an important factor is because it does not change throughout the period a person is expected to perform a specific duty (Jones *et al.*, 2011).

Homburg *et al.*, (2011) noted that a person's variances and similarities are determined by the personality theory. Due to the attributes of human nature, performance and behavior are commonly used to determine a person's personality. The human performances and behaviors are described by one's performance and this determines the variances. Work behaviors are affected by the employee's traits as indicated by

experts in the field of personality (Paille & Mejía, 2014). They therefore concluded that personality is the main factor that determines sales performance Benet-Martinez *et al.*, (2015). The technique is mostly adopted at the time of personnel selection procedure Barrick *et al.*, as cited in Parks & Guay, (2012).

Markets are changing all the time and business firms need to be proactive or lose customers. Some of the main reasons why markets change rapidly are that customers develop new needs and wants, new competitors enter a market, new technologies and government introducing new legislation for example increases in minimum wage. For domestic firms facing global competition, industry position imposes an additional competitive challenge that differs from purely domestic competition (AKI, 2013). Marketing of insurance service is critical and complex. In the present scenario, insurance agencies companies are facing problem of transiting from a perceived selling activity to a structured strategic marketing activity. Insurance agencies are adopting all means of marketing approaches to be in a position of making great sales of insurance services as they face increased competition which are making them register low profits and even losses (AKI, 2013).

In Kenya, Various studies have been undertaken to look at the insurance industry and its challenges. Gitau (2013) for example looked at strategies adopted by Kenyan insurance companies to alleviate low insurance penetration while Odemba (2013) looked at factors affecting uptake of life insurance in Kenya. On his part, Kiragu (2014) assessed the challenges facing insurance companies in building competitive advantage in Kenya. The results of these and other studies give a good insight into their research areas, but do not indicate if there is variation in uptake of insurance based on salesforce personality traits. Limited empirical evidence exists to show about the Moderated Mediation effect of Feedback Seeking Behaviour and Goal

Commitment on the indirect relationship between Salesforce Personality Traits and Sales Performance among insurance sales agents in Kenya thereby creating a gap. An investigation of a robust collective model was used so as to bring to light a more pragmatic picture of the underlying relationships that exist among the variables. This study modelled the interactions of the constructs that influence performance by hypothesizing that there was a significant relationship between Salesforce Personality traits and Sales Performance and that this relationship was positively Mediated and Moderated by Goal Commitment and Feedback Seeking Behaviour among insurance sales agents in Mombasa County, Kenya.

### **1.3 Objectives of the Study**

The study was guided by the following objectives:

#### **1.3.1 General objective**

To investigate the Moderated mediation effect of Feedback Seeking Behaviour and Goal Commitment on the indirect relationship between Sales Force Personality Traits and Sales performance.

#### **1.3.2 Specific objectives**

The specific objectives of the study were to:

- i. To examine the effect of a) Self-efficacy, b) Locus of control, c) Proactive Personality on Sales Performance
- ii. To examine the relationship between a) Self-efficacy, b) Locus of control, c) Proactive Personality and Goal Commitment
- iii. To establish the effect of Goal Commitment on Sales Performance

- iv. To describe the Mediating effect of Goal Commitment on the relationship between a) Self-efficacy, b) Locus of control, c) Proactive Personality and Sales Performance
- v. To analyze the Moderating effect of Feedback Seeking Behaviour on the relationship between a) Self-efficacy, b) Locus of control, c) Proactive Personality and Goal Commitment
- vi. To analyze the Moderating effect of Feedback Seeking Behaviour on the relationship between Goal Commitment and Sales Performance
- vii. To analyze the Moderating effect of Feedback Seeking Behaviour on the indirect relationship between a) Self-efficacy, b) Locus of control, c) Proactive Personality and Sales Performance via Goal Commitment.

#### **1.4 Research Hypothesis**

- i) **HO<sub>1</sub>:** There is no significant direct effect of a) Self-efficacy, b) Locus of control, c) Proactive Personality on Sales Performance.
- ii) **HO<sub>2</sub>:** There is no significant direct effect of a) Self-efficacy, b) Locus of control, c) Proactive Personality on Goal Commitment.
- iii) **HO<sub>3</sub>:** There is no significant direct effect of Goal Commitment on Sales Performance.
- iv) **HO<sub>4</sub>:** There is no significant Mediating effect of Goal Commitment on the relationship between a) Self-efficacy, b) Locus of control, c) Proactive Personality and sales performance.
- v) **HO<sub>5</sub>:** There is no significant Moderating effect of Feedback Seeking Behaviour on the relationship between a) Self-efficacy, b) Locus of control, c) Proactive Personality and Goal Commitment.



- vi) **HO<sub>6</sub>**: There is no significant Moderating effect of Feedback Seeking Behaviour on the relationship between Goal commitment and Sales Performance.
- vii) **HO<sub>7</sub>**: Feedback seeking behaviour does not have any significant Moderating effect on the indirect relationship between a) Self-efficacy, b) Locus of control, c) Proactive Personality and Sales Performance via Goal Commitment.

### **1.5 Significance of the Study**

The results of the study may be of benefit to the following: Management of insurance companies while making decisions related to Salesforce personality traits. The study would also make valuable contribution to both research and practice related to the role of Salesforce personality traits in influencing sales performance mediated and moderated by goal commitment and feedback seeking behaviour.

Government agencies and policy makers may use the results to formulate positive national policies on a framework that is relevant and sensitive to the market forces influencing the insurance industry in Kenya and the East African region.

The study provides information to potential and current scholars on Moderated Mediation effect of Feedback Seeking Behaviour and Goal Commitment on the indirect relationship between Salesforce Personality Traits and Sales Performance. This would expand their knowledge on modelling Moderated Mediated relationships and also identify areas of further study.

Customers would benefit and enjoy services that best satisfy their needs and expectations as a result of the recommendations. Additionally customers would enjoy the warmth of close employee contacts and good relations. This makes the customers

feel part and parcel of the company. Satisfied customers remain loyal for long, they make repeat–re-buy processes and normally become good company advocates.

### **1.6 Scope of the Study**

Conducting a research in all service industries was not an easy task; it required much money, time and effort. Considering money, time and willingness of the companies to give necessary data for the study, therefore, the study concentrated on the influence of indirect relationship between Salesforce personality traits and sales performance in a moderated mediated relationship of feedback seeking behaviour and goal commitment. The study was limited to insurance companies with branches in Mombasa. The respondents were sales people who had served for more than six months.

## CHAPTER TWO

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 2.0 Introduction

This chapter deals with a brief background on sales performance, sales force personality traits, goal commitment, feedback seeking behaviour, theoretical framework, and the conceptual framework.

#### 2.1 Sales Performance

When a quality and quantity deal is closed at a specific period of time, it is termed as sales performance. However, sales performance has been evaluated in different perspectives by the studies done. In every organization, the manager is expected to ensure that there is good sales performance for the success of the firm. A study done by Walker *et al.*, as cited in Day, (2011) found that there are five categories that they used to determine sales performance which are; motivation, aptitude, skills level and role perceptions classified as personal, organizational and environmental factors.

The main role of sales performance is to ensure the success of the organization and strong interactions between customers by use of advertising techniques, sales promotion, publicity and public relations, creating new sales channels, or creating new products. (Sitser *et al.*, (2013). Sales performance is the bridge that connects the customer, sales facility and the sales person (Sung & Choi, 2011). The managers thus have a significant role to ensure that this three are connected effectively for the success and continuity of the organization. The managers' role is to ensure that efficiency, profitability, great customer service and satisfaction are present in the

provision of services in the organization for the satisfactory of the consumers (Magandini & Ngwenya, 2015).

Business is driven successfully by its level of income. Income is generated from customers by enticing them to purchase products and services by ensuring coordinating travelling representatives, telephone sales, and preparing mail shots are effective. Enticing of customers also involve; successful interactions with market functions and complaints, orders, monitoring of sales, profitability, expenses, setting of targets, preparation for catalogues and customer accounts, chasing up orders and dealing with special requests Kotter, (2012). Communication of sales people and the customers, training of the workforce and equipping them with necessary resources ensures the productivity of an organization. Sales performance is influenced by a wide range of factors besides communication skills (Woods *et al.*, 2013).

Sales performance can be measured using the volume of sales, sales of dollars, evaluation of management and self-report measures of self-efficiency (Krishnan *et al.*, as cited in Yang *et al.*, (2011). Sales performance is the sales attained by sales people, maintained relationships between sales people and the customers and their needs. Different studies have showed different factors that determine sales performance and the discussion can go on and on with authors such as Colletti & Tubridy, (2013) adding that sales performance are evaluated sales activities for successful salespeople which include selling, closing sales deals, working with distributors, entertainment, customer retention, attending meetings, servicing products, service delivery, travel, communication or information, training and recruiting. The quantity of output, quality of output, the output time period, attendance at work and cooperative attitude are used to measure the standards of the employees.

Dimaculangan and Aguiling, (2012) posits that employee performance is the general accomplishment of goals set. Employees are said to have a good performance when they complete their tasks successfully, according to the set standards by their managers and using the resources provided effectively and efficiently for the accomplishment of the goals (Tinofirei, 2011). Sales performance is also affected by employee performance as it increases the level of outcomes, improves employees' positive behavior and characteristics and also increases an organizations' productivity (Zahargier & Balasundaram, 2011).

Role perceptions, skill levels, aptitude, motivation, personal characteristics, and organizational/ environmental variables were the six categories developed by Churchill *et al.*, as cited in Day (2011) to explain the sales performance marginal variance. This meta-analysis showed how these six factors were used to evaluate sales performance in an organization. Despite the analysis done, the meta-analysis done has not showed how these variables are important to predicate sales performance Churchill *et al.*, as cited in Day (2011). This led to Churchill *et al.*, as cited in Day (2011) suggesting that researchers should now focus on finding out how sales performance is determined by influence-able factors.

When customers accept the products, the sales people are able to influence them by use of techniques and resources available then effectiveness of sales is determined (Richard *et al.*, 2012). A successful sale happens when the customer and the vendor meet face to face and a transaction takes place. The face to face interaction is an important factor as it helps to create trust and confidence between the two parties involved. The reaction between the two parties determines the kind of sale that will take place at that moment (Salleh & Kamaruddin, 2011).

Effective relationships between the customer and the seller are determined by their common goals. These relationships are created by the sellers' capability to communicate and convince the customer on his/her needs. This is achieved by the seller ensuring that he/she understand the customers' motivation and attitude to establish an effective conversation Davis,(2013), Saunders *et al.*, (2011). Strategies to convince a customer are determined by product quality and capability factors. The relationship between a vendor and the buyer has raised discussions and this has led to many researchers tending to find out their impact on determining sales performance. The motivation level, competence, sales capacity and the roles are the functions that determine a vendor's performance (Sitser *et al.*, 2013).

Over the last a hundred years there has been numerous studies done on sales force performance. Srivastava *et al.*, (2011) found that there were studies done in 1898 on sales formula by William and another done in 1925 on effects of meeting the needs by Strong. Different studied have conceptualized a sellers' performance in numerous ways. These studies have brought out inconsistencies due to the different concepts. According to a study done by Woods *et al.*, (2013), sales force performance is the behavior of the work force to ensure a certain goal is met. According to them, a successful work force is one that possesses unique activities in their sales to ensure they meet the objectives set. The concept is explained by a seller's level of heterogeneity, consistency and coordination in the activities done bringing out variation in performance (Yang *et al.*, 2011). These results were supported by other researchers by categorizing the three into simpler factors of service sold, type of employer, type of customer, vendor requirements as successful activities of a sales person Churchill as cited in Day, (2011). On the other hand Walsh and Lipinski,

(2013) indicated that commercial sales, sales mission, technicians and sales of new business as the activities that determine a successful sales person.

Sholihin *et al.*, (2011) did a more conceptual classification. They used 10 different dimensions to bring out the activities that determine successful sales person which are; cooperation with distributors, entertainment, meetings, services, products, work order and harmony, account services, travel, information, communication and education and employment. Sales force was classified by Saqib & Rashid, (2013) according to their behavior and performance. Rashidah *et al.*, (2013) brought out the number of units sold revenue, market share, new accounts and profitability as the consequences that result from sales. Comparable sales, teamwork, effective communication, customer orientation and sales activities, time management and authority and scope of work are the sale skills of sale practices. Oliver and Andreson, as cited in Schwepker & Good, (2012) indicated that other studied have also tried to bring out the aspect of consequences and behavior to determine performance of the sellers.

An organization's goals in accordance with behavior and activities of the employees are the main factors that determine performance Churchill *et al.*, as cited in Day, (2011). The behavior of employees influences how they perform to achieve organizational goals. While determining the behavior of employees, tasks they perform while doing sales are also evaluated (McShane & Von Glinow, 2013). Mulki *et al.*, (2015) classified performance into two main dimensions; the first are the activities and behaviors of the employees and secondly are the results obtained from the activities performed by the employees. Objectives of every organization are obtained from the managers' efforts of ensuring efficient and effective sales. Every organization has to be effective and efficient on its sales. The levels of sales

performance need to be maximized by managers from time to time (Homburg *et al.*, 2011).

Studies have continued to monitor what indicators determine performance and their comparison. Behavior has been found to be the greatest determinant of evaluating performance through the sales department (Velimirović *et al.*, 2011). Evaluating behavior of sales staff is looking into their activities and strategies that determine their duties and responsibilities. Sales department behaviors need to be assessed to find out the behavior of staff. There is empirical evidence that shows the difference between sales organization and sales performance. Changes in environmental factors e.g. Competition, institutional factors such as management control systems, the cost of advertising and brand image and changes in sales department staff explain the changes resulting from an effective sales organization (Soldz & Vaillant, 2012). An organization determines its sales employees by first evaluating its goals and objectives. The strategies and tactics of the firm help to develop the objectives. All sale activities are determined by performance standards Schwegker, (2013). The plan is implemented after the activities are determined. Monitoring of performance continues. After all these steps are successful, then the mistakes done by the sales agents are eliminated for the success of the objectives set by the organization (Andreson & Oliver as cited in Maroofi *et al.*, 2017).

Sales force performance is assessed by determining the behavior of the sales people that result to successful achievement of organizational goals Churchill *et al.*, as cited in Day (2011). This study focuses mostly on the conceptualization done by Oliver & Andreson. They indicated that evaluation of a vendor's behavior and activities in their work leads to understanding how they perform resulting to desirable achievement of goals (Markman & Baron, 2013; Schwegker & Good, 2012). This conception



generally concludes that sales performance is determined by the sales people behavior and activities outcomes. Sales performance has been sub-divided in some studies and discussed as a whole in others (Ulaga & Loveland, 2014).

Behrman and Perreault divided performance into two main dimensions of behavioral and results. They later sub-divided behavior into behavior and performance. This classification was meant to show that behavior was the main determinant of high performance in a sales company (Oliver and Andreson, 1994 as cited in Schwepker & Good, 2012). Most of the organizations measured their performance by the level of customer satisfaction but are now taking up the aspect of sales performance also. Competition at the global level is determined by customer care and satisfaction levels. Most of the awards given to global companies are measured by their levels of customer satisfaction.

## **2.2 Salesman Personality**

The psychological characteristics of a person that enhance their ability to perform are one's personal characteristics according to Churchill *et. al.*, as cited in Day, (2011). A sales person has to perform his/her duties using the right personal characteristics and mind capabilities for selling (Wiley & Carolyn 2014). Marketing scholars have recognized the importance of personality components, especially in giving some guidance for the selection and hiring of staff. The first theoretical framework of sales performance was published by Walker *et al.*, as cited in Day (2011) suggesting the determinants of sales performance, followed by several attempt to investigate the hypothesized links between possible personality factors and sales performance.

One such study as highlighted by Apasu & Buatsi (2015), who investigated the relationships between several personal factors, personality variables and sales

performance of industrial salespeople. The result indicated that endurance and social recognition were significantly and positively related to performance while empathy and ego strength were found to be negatively related to performance. Other studies, notably (Kosfeld & Neckermann, (2011), Bakker *et al.*, 2012) have also examined the relationship between personality and job performance has generally exhibited numerous results.

Throughout the 20<sup>th</sup> century, the relationship between salesman personality and sales performance has raised lot of discussions among researchers and academicians Judge *et al.*, (2013). Studies done in the 1980s and 1990s found positive results on the relationship between the two. Personality has no specific definition agreed upon by theorists. Different perspectives have been used to describe the term personality. Performance of people is determined by personality and attitudes. A salesman personality is defined as the way he/she views and understands him/herself, the way he/she interacts with the public and how he/she reacts to situations surrounding him.

Traits are defined by Sharp *et al.*, (2011) as a person's characteristics of thinking, emotion and behavior that do not change with time and bring out people's behaviours in different environments. The psychological characteristics of a person that enhance their ability to perform are one's personal characteristics according to Churchill *et al.*, as cited in Day, (2011). A sales person has to perform his/her duties using the right personal characteristics and mind capabilities for selling (Wiley & Carolyn, 2014). Personality is generally the enduring and distinctive patterns of behavior. While hiring and recruiting of sales people, it's necessary to consider their personality works as acknowledged by marketing scholars. There are three dimensions that define personality; one is the physical form of a sales person which includes his/her age, height or weight.

The second are the thoughts, emotions and actions that are unique personality traits which define one's style and manipulates the interactions with the environment Atkinson *et al.*, as cited in Kim & Kim, (2012). Empathy, self-efficacy, self-monitoring, sociability, self-esteem, proactive personality and locus of control define a person's personality distinctiveness. The third is the verbal astuteness, mathematical ability and musical orientation which are also called accomplishments in psychology. This study will focus on the second dimension where self-efficacy, self-esteem, self-monitoring, locus of control and proactive personality will be assessed and how they affect performance. The salespeople who are involved in relationship marketing are relationship managers. The quality of relationships between the customers and sales persons that calculates the probability of continued interchange (Verma *et al.*, 2016). The customer-oriented behaviors by salespersons help to create the good-quality buyer-seller relationship (Dursun & Kilic, (2011). Therefore, appointing the right sales person for the management of specific business relationships is very critical for the businesses. The individual personality traits are very important factors of buyer-seller relationship (Dion, 2017).

Since the buyer-seller relationships mostly are required frequent negotiations on price, quantity, delivery, other terms, and product specifications, this process may require cooperation among needs and conflicting interests. So, the personality of a salesperson affects in managing the relationship, thus influencing a customer's s perceptions about the quality of service provided by salesperson. The literature about the personality shows that purchasing behavior is linked with individual personality traits and those results in the shape of a better and longer-term relationship (Barrick *et al.*, 2013); Goldsmith *et al.*, 2015). The first objective of the research is to investigate the quality of buyer-seller relationships from the seller's perspective and to address

the question what personality traits of a sales person influence the quality of buyer-seller relationships.

Furthermore, from a personal selling, the literature proposes the good customer relationships, in which clients and salespeople interact frequently, and they exchange information, which helps to develop close friendships e.g. Blocker *et al.*, (2012); Luchs & Swan, (2011). The good and friendly relationships between sales persons and clients are frequently unquestioned phenomena, following the thoughts that “overall, frequency of interactions and outcomes dependency, whatever the setting, promotes the friendships” Calabuig *et al.*, (2014)). Salespersons are encouraged to treat the customers like their best friends. There are several approaches for study of personality; the most commonly employed is the trait theory (Perdew *et al.*, 2015). According to this theory, there are many identifiable characteristics to define a person. The most famous examples of such traits are whether a person is an extrovert or an introvert, whether he or she initially uses thinking or emotions in solving the problem. The studies of trait theory to explore the salespersons’ personalities have argued that a salesperson’s performance can consider as a functional traits, which means that “sales success may be a result of degree to which an individual possessed certain personality traits Dion, (2017). Accordingly to Barrick *et al.*, (2013) that different personality types may expect variations in the performance of job among different occupations. There is a classification which is widely accepted known as five-factor personality classification (Chiaburu *et al.*, 2011); Ferrandi *et al.*, 2015). This Big Five framework argues that many individual differences in human personality are classified in terms of five domains (Kanai & Rees, 2011).

It has been used in theoretical frameworks, with a variety of samples and instruments (including samples from diverse cultures) with ratings, obtained from several different sources Barrick *et al.*, (2013). The Big Five factors keep different meanings. Extraversion is known by being sociable, assertive, talkative, and active (McCrae & Costa, 2012). Agreeableness can be defined as flexible, trusting, forgiving, soft-hearted, good-natured, cooperative and tolerant Peighambari *et al.*, (2012). Conscientiousness is described by trustworthiness, as well as being careful, thorough, responsible, organized, resourceful, hardworking, achievement-oriented and persistent (Ohme & Zacher, (2015). Openness to experience can be characterized as curious, original, broad-minded, imaginative, cultured, intelligent, and artistically sensitive (DeYoung *et al.*, 2014; Kaufman, 2013).

Emotional (in) stability (viewed from the negative pole) is known as being tense, angry, embarrassed, worried, anxious depressed, and nervous (Cobb-Clark, 2011; Schurer, 2012). Salespersons' personality traits are considered as important factors in buyer-seller relationships. These finding have been based on following assumptions: 1-certaininsecure, personality traits have been seen as more suited to a sales process than others (Barrick *et al.*, 2013; Apasu & Buatsi, 2015). Two-similarities in seller/buyer personalities lead to positive outcome in sales. Our research, therefore, includes measure of Big Five personality domains, used to examine the effect of personality on the quality of salespeople's relationships with their friends and customers. All salespeople are not successful, given the same sales tools, level of education, and propensity to work. Why do some salespersons succeed where other fail? Is one much better suited to sell the product because ones background? Is one charming or luckier? The evidences suggested that the personalities of these truly great salespeople play a critical role in determining their success.

Personality traits represent a process of change and it relates to the psychological growth and development of individuals (Armstrong *et al.*, 2015; Johnston & Marshall, 2016). Personality factors are extremely important in today's competitive organizational settings. Often the 'wrong' kind of personality proves disastrous and causes undesirable tensions and worries in organization. Research indicates that personality acts as a moderating factor (Valette *et al.*, 2011; Chen *et al.*, 2011): workplace deviance was more likely to be endorsed with respect to an individual when both the perception of the workplace was negative and emotional stability, conscientiousness, and agreeableness was low. Of the five factors, the single factor of conscientiousness is the most predictive of job performance and therefore positively influence work performance (Zimmerman, 2011).

Personality research has focused on the five-factor model (FFM) personality traits Costa and McCrae, (2012). The FFM establishes five factors of personality (Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Emotional Stability, Agreeableness, and Openness to Experience) as a parsimonious model of distinguishing between differences among individuals' dispositions (Zimmerman, 2013). Because of the dominance of the FFM and trait affect models in the literature; namely Conscientiousness Extraversion, Emotional Stability, Agreeableness, and Openness to Experience are the focus of this research. Although examination of direct linkages between employee personality dimensions and performance outcomes is receiving increasing support (Oh *et al.*, (2011); Chiang & Hsieh, (2012), what remains less clear is the interaction and influence of the context or place on this relationship. Are dimensions of personality traits directly responsible for employee success in organizations, or do preferences employees have for factors in their work environment play a more significant role in the relationship? Although selecting employees on the basis of individual dispositions

may have a positive impact on employee attitudes and performance, personality-based employee selection processes are notoriously inaccurate (Lloyd, 2016).

In considering the increasingly large spans of control and reduced contact between employees and managers in work situations (Dai *et al.*, 2011; Gursoy *et al.*, 2013), an over-reliance on employee selection processes as a means of improving performance and commitment may be a less effective approach than effectively managing work environments. In addition, many managers do not have much flexibility in their staffing patterns in the short-term, and HR managers must "deal with the hand they are dealt." In such situations, controlling the work environment is often the most feasible short-term option, beyond skill training, for improving outcomes (Deci & Ryan, 2012; De Stobbeleir *et al.*, 2011). However, a number of different studies have begun to illustrate that the effects of personality on performance may be more indirect than direct (Barrick, *et al.*, 2013; Banjo & Olufemi, 2014; Chiang and Hsieh, 2012). Recent research indicates the intervening effects of performance expectancies, self-efficacy, and goal-setting on the relationship between conscientiousness and performance (Ohme & Zacher, 2015); Oh *et al.*, 2011).

These studies illuminate a significant gap in the literature, that the research to date has disproportionately focused on the direct linkage between personality and performance, and if we are to truly understand the relationship between personality and job performance, we must move beyond this bivariate relationship and toward specifying the intervening variables that link these domains. Although specific personality traits like conscientiousness have been linked to a variety of employee outcomes, what remains unclear is the nature of the relationship between personality, work environment preferences, and performance. It is possible that personality is primarily expressed in individual preferences for work environments, and that the

direct effects of personality on workplace outcomes are fully or partially mediated by such preferences. Most studies show that conscientiousness and emotional stability consistently predict job performance for all job types (Barrick *et al.*, 2012). In addition, some researchers have suggested that personality is useful for predicting other work-related criteria, like job satisfaction and job performance (Allen and Helms, 2011, Aguinis, Gottfredson & Joo, 2012).

Organization between personality and performance has been a frequent topic of study in industrial psychology in the previous century (Barrick *et al.*, 2012). Job performance is a multi-dimensional construct that indicates how well employees perform their duties, they take the initiative and show their intelligence in solving the problem. In addition, shows the extent to which they complete the task, the way they utilize the available resources and spend their time and energy on their tasks (Germain, 2012; Galla & Wood, 2012). Researchers further that examines the relationship of personality and spiritual intelligence to performance (Goldsmith *et al.*, 2015).

The study titled "Role of Personality Traits and Spiritual Intelligence in Predicting Work Performance of School Principals. The results showed that the five personality traits have a significant positive correlation with the level of performance. Extroversion, Conscientiousness and Openness can predict a positive and significant impact on performance, meaning that the higher the level of transparency (openness), consciousness (conscientiousness), attention to the environment (extroversion), principals more success in their performance. Several studies conducted in this case to provide support for these findings (Earl & Minbashian, 2015; Akhtar *et al.* 2017). Bippand Kleingeld, (2011) examined the relationship between personality "Model five-factor "and the prototype image of effective leaders, and the extent to which the



image is associated with features of transformational leadership questionnaire were investigated in a study involving 101 samples of Hong Kong-based permanent employees spread across twenty-nine organizations of any size.

High levels of extraversion, conscientiousness, agreeableness, neurotism and openness which are considered as characteristic of effective leaders. Effelsber, (2014) examines the identification of the lead organization positively associated with transformational leadership. However, found no relationship between the willingness of leaders to engage in pro-organizational behavior unethical and transformational leadership. Oriented leader in-group and compare oriented leader out-group in situations of conflict between the interests of the organization and ethical values more broadly.

### **2.2.1 Effects of Self-efficacy on Sales Performance**

Self-efficacy is defined as the self-perceptions of a sales person with regards to his/her ability to cope with any situation as it arises. Fall and Roussel, (2014) viewed self-efficacy as self-confidence. Bandura, (2013) defined self-efficacy as a person's belief that she/he is capable of performing a particular task successfully. Therefore sales people with high self-efficacy can promptly manage the demands of tough jobs such as sales jobs. Self-efficacy has influential effects on sales performance because people try to learn and perform only those tasks that they believe they will be able to perform successfully.

According to Bandura (as cited by Lunenburg 2011), self-efficacy affects sales performance in three ways, that is, 1) Sales people with low levels of self-efficacy tend to set relatively low goals for themselves, they believe they cannot set high targets or cannot meet the sales targets set for them (Bandura & Locke 2013).

Conversely, a sales person with high self-efficacy is likely to set high targets or goals

2) Employees with high self-efficacy generally work hard to study/learn how to perform new tasks, because they are confident that their efforts will be successful and will lead to meeting the sales targets set (Ivancevich *et al.*, 2011).

In contrast, Gallagher (2012) realized that sales people with low self-efficacy put less effort when they are learning and performing complex tasks because they are not sure whether their effort will lead them into meeting the sales quotas or targets set. 3) Sales people with high self-efficacy are certain that they can attain a new sale and acquire a lost deal. Thus, they are likely to endure in their efforts to attain a sale whilst problems are rising. According to Lunenburg, (2011); Hepler & Feltz, (2012), sales employees who believe they are incompetent in performance or acquiring a new sale are likely to give up when problems surface. Research by Bandura indicated that people perform at levels which are consistent with their self-efficacy beliefs. The higher the self-efficacy, the more they strive to meet the sales quotas and sales volumes set for them (Lunenburg, 2011).

Success in a realm is closely linked to self-efficacy in the realm (Bandura, 2013). Higher self-efficacy in a realm is associated with good outcomes, ranging from greater job satisfaction and performance to better physical and mental health to better academic performance (Bandura as cited in Cherian & Jacob, 2013) for example, students with higher academic self-efficacy show better academic performance (Casillas *et al.*,2012). Priming a high self-efficacy component of a self-schema for a realm might result in outcomes similar to those found for individuals who have characteristically high self-efficacy in a realm. Related to this notion, previous research in other areas indicates that manipulating individuals' perceptions with

respect to motivation will have an impact on their performance (Schutte & Malouff, 2012).

Job involvement and organizational commitment measures have been found to have an impact on employee motivation (Mohsan *et al.*, 2011). Any impact on an employee's commitment to her career is found to be associated with his ability to link his motivation to her performance levels and an antecedent to this motivation is his self-efficacy. There has been a great deal of importance given in research to the level of commitment an employee gives to his career. This is important as a career is not only a source of income for the individual to sustain but also one which presents a great deal of occupational meaning as well as continuity as well ensuring a great deal of employment security (Vandenberghe & Basak, 2013). An individual's behaviour is associated with the degree of commitment he shows to his career. Any individual who has the ability to show commitment to his career always is found to make an attempt to improve his skills and motivate himself to perform well. Such an employee is also found to spend time in terms of developing his skills (Vandenberghe & Basak, 2013; Schutte & Malouff, 2012) and promoting his self-efficacy by showing better job involvement.

There has been a great deal of evidence which has linked the importance of employee self-efficacy and his performance including the ability to adapt to advanced technologies in the workplace like internet or new software Jones *et al.*, (2011); Ingram, *et al.*, (2012), ability to cope with current changes in career plan (Homburg *et al.*, 2011), ability to generate new ideas and grow to a managerial level (Mathisen, 2011), ability to perform better as a team (Galla & Wood, 2012), ability to acquire more skills (Cherian & Jacob, 2013). There have been a number of reviews which have examined the impact of self-efficacy on organizational settings however there

have been very few which has examined the overall impact on employee performance as well as once which links self-efficacy directly to motivation hence performance (Mathisen, 2011; Galla & Wood, 2012). Previous studies have shown that both self-efficacy and motivation are both integral part of performance and both these factors contribute to a good service quality, effectiveness and efficiency in the workplace (Tajeddini, 2011; Pantouvakis & Mpogiatzidis, 2013).

Self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 2013) has been used to predict behaviour by assessing an individual's personal judgement in his/her ability to perform to specific levels of performance (Halper & Vancouver, 2016; Hepler & Feltz, 2012; Mesquita *et al.*, 2012). Self-efficacy is a situation-specific form of self-confidence and is defined as "beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to produce given attainments" (Bandura, 2013). However, self-efficacy beliefs in one particular area of life do not guarantee that they will be effective in other areas of interest. Hence, it is also a domain-specific form of self-confidence. The reciprocal relationship between self-efficacy and performance suggests that an improvement in performance will boost an individual's level of self-efficacy, which in turn will improve subsequent performance, and so forth (Lunenburg, 2011; Walumbwa *et al.*, 2011). Self-efficacy theory is generally regarded as one of the most significant theories in social cognitive research (Beattie *et al.*, 2011).

It has been observed that self-efficacy has a direct impact on behaviour. For example, individuals with high self-efficacy show greater commitment to their work (Bipp & Kleingeld, 2011; Fall & Roussel, 2014), display good progress in the attainment of goals and demonstrate high levels of task engagement (Diseth, 2011). They also choose goals that are challenging for them and difficult to achieve and their efforts to

achieve such goals are deliberate and intensified when goal progress or accomplishments are threatened (Beattie *et al.*, 2011).

Self-efficacy beliefs also provide people with perceived control over their environment. These beliefs reflect a person's potential to comprehend situations and assess their capability to execute strategies for the accomplishment of desired goals (Bandura, 2014). According to Bresó *et al.*, (2011), self-efficacy affects the processes of inspiration and self-regulation. Individuals take part in activities that they feel confident about (Rauch and Hulsink, 2015); in other words they approach and like activities because they feel confident about their ability in those activities (Schaubroeck *et al.*, 2011; Walumbwa, *et al.*, 2011). Salanova *et al.*, 2011) noted that self-efficacy is a precursor of individuals' investing more effort in their work in order to solve problems. As mentioned previously, individuals high in self-efficacy set challenging goals in life and invest extra effort in order to achieve them (Hechavarria *et al.*, 2012; Hayes & Scharkow, 2013). Furthermore, when beset with failure and barriers, highly efficacious individuals do not turn their backs on their difficulties, because they consider that dealing with such difficulties is part of the strategy to succeed (Yakın & Erdil, 2012; Yang Kim & McFarland, 2011).

### **2.2.2 The impact of Locus of Control on Sales Performance**

The concept of locus of control (LOC) has received a great deal of attention during the last two decades (Zacher & Gielnik, 2012; Grotz, *et al.*, 2011). The locus of control refers to the extent to which sales people believe that they can decide their individual outcome (Sheffer *et al.*, 2012). Ru Hsu (2011) defined locus of control as the extent to which individuals believe that they have control over their own destiny. In other words, locus of control refers to the circumstances that individuals attribute

their success and failures to (Ogunyemi, 2013; Magandini & Ngwenya, (2015); Fong *et al.*,(2017) state that individuals with a strong internal locus of control believe events in their life derive primarily from their own actions. All the above authors agree that the individual have a control over their actions and destiny.

The locus of control construct has two dimensions, which are, internal locus of control (Lefcourt, 2013) and external locus of control (Davis, 2013). People with internal LOC believe that they can influence their leads in order to close a sale and that their actions affect what happens to them (Salleh & Kamaruddin, 2011; Ru Hsu, 2011) but people with external LOC believe that they have little influence over the environment and what happens to them is due to external factors such as luck, or the actions of others (Spector 2011, Teece *et al.*, 2015). If a sale is acquired, they believe its luck or chance not their capability.

Cobb-Clark and Schurer, (2012) observed that locus of control plays an important role in closing deals or sales at work. It has been observed that locus of control is correlated to various important work outcomes including the ability to close deals/sales and success in sales performance (Peterson *et al.*, 2011; Hogan *et al.*, 2013). According to Salleh & Kamaruddin, (2011); Ru Hsu, 2011), research has found that individuals with an internal work locus of control generally have lower levels of job stress and perform better. A meta-analysis on work locus of control has found that there are significant correlations between perceived control and job stressors such as role conflict and role ambiguity (Allen *et al.*, 2012). Studies have found a positive association between internal locus of control and sales performance for salespeople selling large computer systems, while for those selling small system computers, external locus of control was positively related to all performance measures (Hsia *et al.*, 2014).

LOC measures an individual's expectancies for either the need for internal or external control of reinforcement (April *et al.*, 2012; Büttgen *et al.*, 2012). The effects of reward or reinforcement on preceding behavior depend in part on whether the person perceives the reward as contingent on his own behavior or independent of it (Casillas *et al.*, 2012). Individuals with internal LOC (internals) believe they have control over their destinies. They tend to be convinced that their own skills, abilities, and efforts determine the reinforcements they receive (Salleh & Kamaruddin, 2011; Ru Hsu, 2011). Individuals who have external LOC (externals) have the view that these reinforcements are controlled by external forces such as luck, chance, fate, or powerful others (Spector, 2011; Teece *et al.*, 2015).

Spector *et al.*, (2011) described LOC in an organizational setting as a generalized expectancy that rewards, reinforcements or outcomes in life are controlled either by one's own action (internality) or other forces (externality). They explain that in organizational settings, rewards or outcomes include promotion, favorable circumstances, salary increases and general career advancement. Malik *et al.*, (2015) concluded that LOC has been generally accepted as a relatively stable aspect of human personality that has meaningful implications for predicting behavior across a wide variety of situations. Omari *et al.*, (2012) support these by observing that a person does not hold the same belief of control for every action taken and LOC may change over time but, it is assumed to be relatively stable and generally people can be placed somewhere along the internal – external continuum.

According to Rashid & Campus (2016) salesmen with internal LOC orientation sets higher targets for themselves are more likely to engage in managing issues themselves, are better suited to jobs that require initiative and problem solving capabilities, closing deals and are more likely to view innovations as opportunities. In

theory, sales people that are low on internal LOC, should put forth more effort and persevere towards acquiring valued outcomes because they feel able to control outcomes. With greater efforts and determination, high sales performance is achieved (Baum *et al.*, 2014). Empirically, the previous researchers have found LOC to be in connection with closing sales deals, job performance, and career Success (Piccolo *et al.*, 2012).

### **2.2.3 Effects of Proactive Personality on Sales Performance**

According to Bakker *et al.*, (2012), proactive personality is defined as the sales person's tendency to fix what is in the wrong, change things and use well planned ideas to solve problems. The proactive sales people take action to initiate important change instead of waiting to be told what to do. Crossley *et al.*, (2013) state that, proactive sales people excel more over the course of their careers because they plan carefully and acquire greater understanding of how the politics within the company work. Proactive sales people are important assets to their companies because they may have higher levels of performance (Kammeyer *et al.*, 2013).

According to Zhang *et al.*, (2012), they adjust to their new tasks very quickly because they understand the political surroundings well and make acquaintances more quickly. Proactive people are eager to learn and engage in many developmental activities to improve their skills. According to Tolentino *et al.*, (2014) proactive sales people are good at maintaining customer relationships. They put customers at the core of all activities, keeping them informed, making an avenue for complaints and quickly solving their problems and fixing everything that is wrong in order to satisfy them. In short, this is their way of listening to them (Grant *et al.*, 2011). However, Newman *et al.*, (2017) argues that people with proactive personality may be a liability for an



organization. They further went on to elaborate that some customers can view a proactive sales person as too pushy, trying to change things other people are not willing to let go of, or using their initiative to make decisions that do not serve a company's best interests. According to Bertolino *et al.*, (2011) a proactive sales person's achievement depends on understanding the company's core values, ability, and skills to perform the job and ability to assess situational demands correctly.

According to Piccolo *et al.*, (2012) a sales person with a proactive personality can easily maintain relationships with customers. They are convinced and positive that they are able keep customers fulfilled and maintain customer relationships. They are positive that they can keep on building up of relationships for the organization. Customer knowledge refers to understanding your customers, their needs, wants and aims. Garcia-Murillo and Annabi as cited in Chua & Banerjee (2013) give a pretty definition of customer knowledge as the collection of information and insight that you need to have to build stronger customer relationships. Customer knowledge includes a wider variety of less structured information that will help build insight into customer relationships.

According to Chiang & Hsieh (2012) proactive behavior has been indirectly linked to effective selling; an assertion underpinned by a logic, which states that in a world of high competition and choice, the passive, reactive seller is unlikely to do as well as his or her more proactive counterpart. Yet, little direct empirical evidence exists to substantiate this link. According to a research carried out by Tsao *et al.*, (2011), they addressed this knowledge gap by describing a study that assesses the effect of proactive behavior on the performance of an industrial sales force. The paper explored the issue of salesperson performance and the construct of proactive behavior (or proactiveness).

Using the Proactive Personality (PP) Scale to measure pro-activeness and the line manager's subjective evaluation to indicate salesperson performance, it was found that a small but significant relationship exists. Marques-Quinteiro & Cural (2012) argued that a proactive personality may be differentially related to performance dependent on job tenure and that self-managing behaviors may be a key linking mechanism between proactive personality and performance.

PAP is the degree to which individuals have an active role orientation. Rather than accepting their roles passively, proactive persons challenge the status quo and initiate change (Blocker *et al.*, 2011). Thus employees with proactive personalities use initiative, persevere, and attempt to shape their environment Bakker *et al.*, (2012) and tend to have a positive impact on job-related outcomes especially in changeable and more dynamic work environments.

PAP has been related to extrinsic job-related outcomes such as job performance (Kooij *et al.*, (2011); extrinsic career success, or actual advancements in salary and position (Kiazad *et al.*, 2014). In an attempt to examine the criterion validity of the Proactive Personality Scale, Crant as cited in Zhang *et al.*, (2012) found that proactive personality explained 8% of the variance in objective measures of job performance in the case of real estate agents. Additionally proactive personality has been associated with other objective measures such as salary and promotions (Tolentino *et al.*, 2014). Proactive personality was also found to be significantly related to subjective evaluations of performance by direct supervisors in diverse backgrounds Joo & Ready, (2012) as they tend to set high standards, and harness all available resources into achieving those standards (Zhang *et al.*, 2012). PAP has also been related to intrinsic career success, i.e. job and career satisfaction. Intrinsic success is also

important because of its relation to job satisfaction and turnover intentions (Lounsbury *et al.*, 2014).

Proactive behavior entails a dynamic approach toward work (Carson *et al.*, 2016; Wikhamn & Hall, 2012). Thus proactive behavior seeks to improvise the existing job along with developing personal prerequisites for furthering career success (Zhang *et al.*, 2012) and organizational effectiveness. It encompasses behaviors such as taking charge and personal initiative (Love & Dustin, 2014) and is closely associated with flexible role orientations (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012). The dispositional approach involves the measurement of personal characteristics and the assumption that such measures can aid in explaining individual attitudes and behavior (Brandstätter, 2011; Blocker *et al.*, 2011). Also when traits and predispositions are strong there is a lesser likelihood they will be overridden by situational forces (Dweck, 2013).

Using this approach past research has conceived proactive personality as a relatively stable individual disposition toward proactive behavior (Benet-Martínez *et al.*, 2015). Additionally, the extant work on proactive behavior advocates the fact that the construct proactive personality explicitly encompasses the varied aspects of proactive behavior and initiative (Beattie *et al.*, 2011; Barrick *et al.*, 2013). Chiaburu *et al.*, (2011) defined the construct proactive personality “as a dispositional construct that identifies differences among people in the extent to which they take action to influence their environment” (pg 103). They further developed the Proactive Personality Scale (PPS) to measure this construct and provided evidence for the scale’s convergent, discriminant, and predictive validity with results from three studies. Since then, a number of studies have consistently demonstrated the validity of the proactive personality construct, as assessed by the PPS (Raju *et al.*, 2011; Peighambari, 2012; Mulki *et al.*, 2015).

Proactive personality is a unique disposition not captured by other typologies such as the five-factor model; Vandenberghe & Basak (2013) found only moderate correlations with the five-factor model of personality. Furthermore, Oh, Wang & Mount, (2011) found that PAP predicted sales performance above and beyond conscientiousness and extraversion. Additionally, Chiaburu *et al.*, (2011) showed that PAP is distinct from self-consciousness, need for achievement, need for dominance, and locus of control. All these studies provide further evidence for the discriminant validity of PAP. Research in understanding this construct has been rapidly increasing. Its effects have been studied in varied fields such as career success Kiazad *et al.*, (2014), job performance through a social capital perspective (Buller & McEvoy, 2012); and charismatic leadership (Oh *et al.*, (2011).

#### **2.2.4 Concept of Feedback Seeking Behaviour**

To find out information on the products they tend to purchase, most clients used this concept of feedback-seeking behavior which was introduced in 1983 by Ashford and Cummings. The definition of this concept is of importance to every sales organization. For example managers acquire feedback information from the sales people and that helps them determine the level of performance. Secondly, this concept brings out the aspect of feedback that helps in the daily running of the organization.

Feedback-seeking can be understood as a process that is comprised of three stages: motivation, cognitive processing, and behavior (De Stobbeleir *et al.*, 2011). In the motivation stage, an individual develops a need or desire for feedback. This need or desire creates an expected benefit for seeking feedback which motivates the person to engage in the behavior. For example, a person may be motivated to seek feedback in order to promote his or her work so that others will view him or her more favorably (Dahling *et al.*, 2015; Harrison *et al.*, 2015). Alternatively, a person may be motivated

to seek feedback in order to get his or her supervisor to release some early criticism so that his or her performance appraisal will be less negative (Bernardin & Wiatrowski, 2013; Bednall *et al.*, 2014).

Researches done by (Northcraft *et al.*, 2011; Ashford *et al.*, 2013) have clearly brought out the importance of receiving feedback proactively rather than receiving it from others. Job performance, job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behaviors and participation in upward appraisal programs are increased by feedback seeking and also results to decrease of turnover intentions (Ng *et al.*, 2011; De Stobbeleir *et al.*, 2011) Whitaker *et al.*, 2012). Seeking feedback is a crucial matter as when people seek it from others; they might receive negative feedback (Nifadkar *et al.*, 2012). Seeking of feedback affected most sales as the information sought was crucial as most people are active seekers of feedback Ashford and Cummings as cited in Robson and Robinson, (2013).

Insights that help in enhancing of performance make feedback more useful (De Stobbeleir *et al.*, 2011). The main purpose of feedback is to specify behaviors that are favorable in attaining the goals set to improve performance. Crommelinck and Anseel (2013); Srikanth, and Jomon (2013) indicated that behaviour reinforcement and behavior regulation are the two functions performed by feedback. Reinforcing behaviors result from favorable feedback while behavior modification results from unfavorable feedback. Generally, feedback plays a crucial role in determining behavior which results to performance.

Mann *et al.*, (2013) found that many employees result to a trial and error method to try and please their seniors when there is lack of clarity in results to try and meet the goals set. Performance has been put under many contexts to evaluate its measurement

especially by the self-regulation theory (Porath & Bateman, 2016), and also to ensure effective understanding of the managers work (Cegarra-Leiva *et al.*, 2012; McIver *et al.*, 2013).

Self-regulation theory is all about seeking feedback that results from behavior which individuals tend to seek regarding their performance (Nifadkar *et al.*, 2012; Porath & Bateman, 2016). Feedback seeking is influenced mostly by self-esteem and extraversion traits Krasman, (2011); Boateng *et al.*, (2015); Kulik, (2014). The general aspect of seeking feedback relies mostly on other factors and relies on itself on very few cases. Feedback seeking is a general proactive strategy (Grant *et al.*, 2011; Grant *et al.*, 2011). Most of the employees use feedback seeking to respond to demands that result from jobs so as to take control (DeStrobbler *et al.*, 2011).

DeRue *et al.*, (2012) brought out how active feedback plays a role in ensuring managerial competence. Feedback is mostly received from either supervisors or co-workers. This is because when gotten from other people it might not be the exact information but co-workers provide comprehensive feedback that supervisors might not provide apprehensively (Dobrow *et al.*, 2012). Role ambiguity can be dealt with by the employees through the feedback given to them and also managers can use feedback to encourage creative performance from the employees (Yürür & Sarikaya, 2012; Yang *et al.*, 2011).

Most studies show that feedback plays a number of roles in determining performance; it allows individuals to adapt and respond to changing work environments, it helps in evaluating varying goals and role expectations (Carbonell & Rodriguez-Escudero, 2013). It helps to obtain accurate self-appraisal (Dobrow *et al.*, 2012) and improves task performance (Chen *et al.*, 2011). Role ambiguity is also dealt with by employees

by use of feedback by monitoring the environment surrounding their work (Casillas *et al.*, 2012). Feedback is sought immensely by individuals (Srikanth & Jomon (2013). Seeking feedback is a crucial matter as when people seek it from others; they might receive negative feedback (Northcraft *et al.*, 2011).

The importance of seeking feedback proactively has been well demonstrated in research (Mohsan *et al.*, 2011). Feedback, in this view, is seen as a strategy to achieve better person – environment fit. Mann *et al.*, (2013) described feedback seekers as being proactive individuals who set their own standards and seek feedback to achieve personal goals and also to sustain relationships and to meet others' expectations. This study will focus on sales people's motivation to seek feedback from their supervisors in order to determine whether they are performing their jobs properly.

Several dimensions are used to characterize environments of supportive supervisor feedback (Aguinis *et al.*, 2012). They occur when employees trusts the supervisor in providing credible information, provides feedback that is of high quality (Kane & Staiger, 2012), provides information that is clear and empathetic, provides both positive and negative feedback, when the supervisor is accessible and is involved in feedback-seeking behavior. Effective supportive supervisor feedback results to employees that are; high committed and full of morale, have low perceptions of politics, have improved feedback orientation and have great control over information and decisions at work.

The environments that surround provision of feedback to employees by supervisors tend to be more predictive in most of the studies done by Whitaker and Levy, (2012). This study focused more on direct inquiry as it contributes more to performance

compared to passive environmental monitoring as it provides the exact feedback that the employees tend to acquire (Ashford *et al.*, 2013).

Information that the management gives to the employees enables them to develop role clarity that helps in attaining of the organizations goals and improvement of performance (Barrick *et al.*, 2013). High performance and rewards offered by organizations play a vital role in ensuring success of work done by the employees in that the feedback provided to them clarifies their behaviour and instills encouragement (Wallace *et al.*, 2016; Çekmecelioğlu *et al.*, 2012). This idea thus supports most studies that have determined that feedback provision by supervisors helps in improving performance (Whitaker & Levy, 2012). When an organization records good performance, employees are also motivated to work harder, learn more and also are motivated to improve their roles to attain the goals set (Peralta *et al.*, 2015).

### **2.2.5 Concept of Goal Commitment**

Whatever a person puts an effort to try and do is termed as goal. Emotions and desire motivates people to put efforts in whatever they do (Locke & Latham, 2013). This therefore shows that most people do whatever they value and desire. Behavior is also affected greatly by goals. There are two types of goals; the first type is ones that are intrinsic in value and employees are motivated to attain them even without a promise of rewards after achievement but others are too discouraging that even with a promise of rewards they become difficult for employees to achieve (Lord *et al.*, 2011).

The determination that one puts to achieve a certain goal (Sholihin *et al.*, 2011; Locke and Latham, 2013) or the will to put more effort to ensure that the goals set are achieved is 'goal commitment' (Zimmerman, 2011; Zhang *et al.*, 2012). Goal



commitment can be reduced by participation as per the Goal-setting theory Locke and Latham, (2013). Schunk, and Zimmerman (2012) noted that when the management makes a move of involving the employees in setting of goals, they are more motivated to attain them as they feel a sense of obligation which leads to commitment (Schunk & Zimmerman 2012).

According to the goal theory, participation plays a significant role in ensuring that employees feel a sense of ownership that results to commitment to their work (Locke & Latham, 2013). Other studies done by Sandalgaard *et al.*, (2011) were in agreement that participation is significantly connected to goal commitment. Most of the organizations do not offer goals that employees feel committed to. Other organizations use rewards (such as financial rewards) to get employees to be committed to the goals they set for them to attain. This leads to most of the goals not being attained as commitment is not attached simply because a financial reward was attached to a goal.

## **2.3 Theoretical Perspectives**

This study was based on three theories. Self-determination theory (SDT), Goal setting Theory and Vroom Expectancy Theory (ET).

### **2.3.1 Self Determination Theory (SDT)**

The Self Determination Theory uses traditional methods to determine the impact of human motivation and personality to bring out the importance of developing personality and behavioral self-regulation (Ryan *et al.*, 2013).

Comparisons between people whose motivation is authentic (literally, self-authored or endorsed) and those who are merely externally controlled for an action typically

reveal that the former, relative to the latter, have more interest, excitement, and confidence, which in turn is manifest both as enhanced performance, persistence, and creativity (Deci & Ryan, 2012; Van Langevelde *et al.*, 2013) and as heightened vitality (Ryan *et al.*, (2013), self-esteem (Marcia, 2017), and general well-being (Deci & Ryan, 2012). This is so even when the people have the same level of perceived competence or self-efficacy for the activity.

Motivation concerns energy, direction, persistence and equifinality - all aspects of activation and intention (Moghimehfar & Halpenny, 2016). Motivation has been a central and perennial issue in the field of psychology, for it is at the core of biological, cognitive, and social regulation. Perhaps more important, in the real world, motivation is highly valued because of its consequences: Motivation produces. It is therefore of preeminent concern to those in roles such as manager, teacher, religious leader, coach, health care provider, and parent that involve mobilizing others to act. Although motivation is often treated as a singular construct, even superficial reflection suggests that people are moved to act by very different types of factors, with highly varied experiences and consequences (Purohit & Bandyopadhyay, 2014). People can be motivated because they value an activity or because there is strong external coercion. They can be urged into action by an abiding interest or by a bribe. They can behave from a sense of personal commitment to excel or from fear of being surveilled (Katz *et al.*, 2011; Lonsdale *et al.*, 2011).

These contrasts between cases of having internal motivation versus being externally pressured are surely familiar to everyone. The issue of whether people stand behind a behavior out of their interests and values, or do it for reasons external to the self, is a matter of significance in every culture and represents a basic dimension by which people make sense of their own and others' behavior (Fong *et al.*, 2017; Kennedy,

2011; Deci & Ryan, 2012). Comparisons between people whose motivation is authentic (literally, self-authored or endorsed) and those who are merely externally controlled for an action typically reveal that the former, relative to the latter, have more interest, excitement, and confidence, which in turn is manifest both as enhanced performance, persistence, and creativity (Deci & Ryan, 2012) and as heightened vitality (Nix *et al.*, 2013), self-esteem and general well-being (Ryan *et al.*, 2013).

This is so even when the people have the same level of perceived competence or self-efficacy for the activity. Because of the functional and experiential differences between self-motivation and external regulation, a major focus of SDT has been to supply a more differentiated approach to motivation, by asking what kind of motivation is being exhibited at any given time. By considering the perceived forces that move a person to act, SDT has been able to identify several distinct types of motivation, each of which has specifiable consequences for learning, performance, personal experience, and well-being. Also, by articulating a set of principles concerning how each type of motivation is developed and sustained, or forestalled and undermined, SDT at once recognizes a positive thrust to human nature and provides an account of passivity, alienation, and psychopathology.

Although intrinsic motivation is an important type of motivation, it is not the only type or even the only type of self-determined motivation (DeFreese & Smith, 2013). Indeed, much of what people do is not, strictly speaking, intrinsically motivated, especially after early childhood when the freedom to be intrinsically motivated is increasingly curtailed by social pressures to do activities that are not interesting and to assume a variety of new responsibilities (Riley & Smith, 2011).

The real question concerning non-intrinsically motivated practices is how individuals acquire the motivation to carry them out and how this motivation affects ongoing

persistence, behavioral quality, and well-being. Whenever a person (be it a parent, teacher, boss, coach, or therapist) attempts to foster certain behaviors in others, the others motivation for the behavior can range from a motivation or unwillingness, to passive compliance, to active personal commitment. According to SDT, these different motivations reflect differing degrees to which the value and regulation of the requested behavior have been internalized and integrated. Internalization refers to people's "taking in" a value or regulation, and integration refers to the further transformation of that regulation into their own so that, subsequently, it will emanate from their sense of self.

Internalization and integration are clearly central issues in childhood socialization, but they are also continually relevant for the regulation of behavior across the lifespan. In nearly every setting people enter, certain behaviors and values are prescribed, behaviors that are not interesting and values that are not spontaneously adopted. Accordingly, SDT has addressed the issues of (a) the processes through which such non-intrinsically motivated behaviors can become truly self-determined, and (b) the ways in which the social environment influences those processes.

The term extrinsic motivation refers to the performance of an activity in order to attain some separable outcome and, thus, contrasts with intrinsic motivation, which refers to doing an activity for the inherent satisfaction of the activity itself. Unlike some perspectives that view extrinsically motivated behavior as invariably non-autonomous, SDT proposes that extrinsic motivation can vary greatly in its relative autonomy (Deci & Ryan, 2012; DeFreese & Smith, 2013). For example, students who do their homework because they personally grasp its value for their chosen career are extrinsically motivated, as are those who do the work only because they are adhering to their parents' control Riley & Smith, (2011). Both examples involve

instrumentalities rather than enjoyment of the work itself, yet the former case of extrinsic motivation entails personal endorsement and a feeling of choice, whereas the latter involves compliance with an external regulation. Both represent intentional behavior, but they vary in their relative autonomy. The former, of course, is the type of extrinsic motivation that is sought by astute socializing agents regardless to the applied domain (Schillemans, 2013); Elliot & Dweck, 2013).

### **2.3.2 Expectancy Theory (ET)**

Vroom, (1976) attributed the Expectancy theory to be applied to the aspect of employee motivation. The theory focuses mostly on what motivates a person's behavior and how to maintain that motivation in the work environment so as to attain good performance results. As such it may help to integrate previous writings on the content of sales motivation.

Vroom's theory hypothesizes that employee job performance (P) is a function of the multiplicative interaction between motivation (M) and ability (A). Thus: (1)  $P = f(M \times A)$ . The rationale for the multiplicative relationship is that if an individual is low on either performance component, then his performance must be necessarily low as well. Motivation, in turn, is hypothesized to be a function of the multiplicative interaction of the valence of one's performance goal ( $V_j$ ) and the subjective probability or expectancy that one's efforts will result in the attainment of that performance goal ( $E_j$ ). Thus: (2)  $M = f(V_j \times E_j)$ .

This theory emphasizes the needs for organizations to relate rewards directly to performance and to ensure that the rewards provided are those rewards deserved and wanted by the recipients (Renko *et al.*, 2012; Purvis *et al.*, 2015). The theory provides an explanation of why individuals choose one behavioral option over others. The

basic idea behind the theory is that people will be motivated because they believe that their decision will lead to their desired outcome (Mitchell & Albright, 2012). Expectancy theory proposes that work motivation is dependent upon the perceived association between performance and outcomes and individuals modify their behavior based on their calculation of anticipated outcomes (Wong & Li, 2015; Naylor *et al.*, 2013). This has a practical and positive benefit of improving motivation because it can, and has, helped leaders create motivational programs in the workplace.

Current developments in the theory involve a shift from the initial performance-outcome tie approach which emphasized that managers should use systems that tie rewards very closely to performance (Lee & Jimenez, 2011; Locke & Latham, 2015) to the effort-performance tie approach which asserts that managers should engage in staff training to improve the capabilities of the staff and improve their belief that added effort will in fact lead to better performance (Zairi, 2012). As such the emphasis becomes the connection among expected behaviors, rewards and organizational goals (O'Reilly & Chatman, 2016).

Critics of the expectancy theory such as Graen and Lawler (1971) argue that the expectancy model is too simplistic in nature. They argued that the simplicity of the expectancy theory is deceptive because it assumes that if an employer makes a reward, such as a financial bonus or promotion, enticing enough, employees will increase their productivity to obtain the reward but this is not always the case. They argue that since there have been a variety of developments of expectancy theory since its creation in 1964; the expectancy model needs to be updated. Their new model is based on four claims. First, whenever there are a number of outcomes, individuals will usually have a preference among those outcomes. Two, there is a belief on the part of that individual that their action(s) will achieve the outcome they desire. Three,

any desired outcome was generated by the individual's behavior. Finally, the actions generated by the individual were generated by the preferred outcome and expectation of the individual (Arando *et al.*, 2015).

### **2.3.3 Goal Setting Theory**

Locke and Latham propounded the Goal setting theory in 1968. This theory generally focuses on understanding the relationship that exists between motivation, behavior, and performance. This theory's main goal is to assess the human's translation on motivational forces into behavior using the process to set and pursue goals. Goals are responsible for bringing out a person's motivation which later shapes it into behavior. High performance and success are a result of motivational goals that are promoted by goals. Goals are responsible for people to focus attention, exert effort, persist in the face of challenge and engage in strategy development (Latham, 2013).

Understanding the difference between motivation and behavior is important as (Miner *et al.*, 2015), as it brings out how they affect performance and the results they generate (Miner, 2015; Mitchell & Albright, 2012). Performance is connected to behavior through motivation. An example if an employee would want to be promoted, the urge to want does not lead to the promotion (Mohsan *et al.*, 2011; Miao & Evans, 2014). The urge one has to be promoted motivates them to work harder and thus may get the promotion. This theory thus explains how motivation leads to behavior then to good performance. Generally, goal setting theory explains how motivation, behavior and overall performance are related (Griffin & Moorhead, 2011; Johnston & Marshall, 2016).

Goal setting theory makes three other claims apart from providing a conceptual framework. Goal setting theory maintains a rule of only high goals lead to a good

performance and does not rely upon low or vague goals Próspero *et al.*, (2012); Sandalgaard *et al.*, (2011). The theory also explains the connection between goal difficulty and performance and thus insists on the fact that the higher the goal the better the performance (Lunenburg, 2011; Malhotra & Dash, 2011; Mallin *et al.*, 2011). It also explains that other factors such as feedback and monetary incentives only affect performance and behavior when the goal setting is high (Handgraaf *et al.*, 2013; Halper & Vancouver, 2016). Therefore, other factors only influence performance by the presence of goal setting mediation (Latham, 2013). These findings are from thousands of empirical researches done in different countries on performance and behaviour (Locke & Latham, 2013; Kondolf, 2011).

Relationship of goal-performance is mostly tempered by the notion of goal commitment. When challenges arise when the goals set have not been attained, goal setting theory therefore does not apply in this case (Naik *et al.*, 2011). Despite this, many empirical researches have tried to show the importance of goal commitment. A study done by Klein *et al.*, (2012); Kasemsap, (2013) concluded that goal setting and performance were moderated by goal commitment. Goal setting and performance were moderated more by goal commitment when goal difficulty was high than when it was low. This shows that the success of performance is influenced by how strong commitment of the employees is to the goals set.

Performance results connected to goals are highlighted through four mechanisms; direct attention to priorities, stimulation of efforts, encouraging of employees' to apply their knowledge and skills for higher chances to succeed and use of challenging goals so as to bring out their level of motivation and commitment (Sussman *et al.*, 2013; Kim & Brymer, 2011 and Lockett *et al.*, 2011).



Since goals drive people's thoughts and actions, it is necessary to ensure that the primary determinants of motivation are ones' conscious intentions (goals) to bring out the basic rule of goal setting theory (Ariga & Lleras, 2011). Majority of the people are able to review the consequences of their behaviour through the goals set. When they find out that through their current behaviour the goals set will not be attained, then they choose to modify their character or settle for other goals that are easier to achieve (Locke and Latham as cited in Allen & Helms, 2011).

This theory focuses mostly on how motivation and behaviour are able to impact how performance are measured and managed through the goals set. Goal theory supports the objectives, feedback and the outcomes of managing performance (Seniwoliba, 2015; Bipp & Kleingeld, 2011). Goal setting theory maintains a rule of only high goals lead to a good performance and does not rely upon low or vague goals. Thus the main purpose of goal setting theory is to underlay the relationship between goals and performance as when people have a specific goal they aim to, they tend to exert more effort and that increases performance (Locke and Latham as cited in Saqib & Rashid, 2013). The reason why goal-setting has a positive effect on performance is that a specific high goal affects choice, effort and persistence. In other words, a specific goal or target increases a person's focus on what is to be accomplished as opposed to putting it off until a later date. Commitment to a specific high goal also leads to persistence until the goal is achieved Kruglanski *et al.*, (2018).

A good performance management system needs to be underpinned with good objective setting, and organization structure (Lee & Jimenez, 2011; Lepper & Greene, 2015). Individuals need to be clear on what the key results areas are for each position and what is expected of them. Goal setting must also facilitate a bottom-up process, whereby individuals are given the opportunity to agree the goals through open

dialogues, and to formulate their own goals within the overall performance management framework (Bipp & Kleingeld, 2011; Kruglanski, 2018).

Goal-setting theory suggests that participation may induce goal commitment (Locke and Latham, (2013); Locke *et al.*, (2011). Chen *et al.*, (2011) argue that the opportunity to get involved in and have influence on the process of setting goals increases subordinates' feeling of control and involvement over the decisions made which may increase the subordinates' commitment to the goals. Goal theory argues that participation is able to make goals more important to the individual by creating a greater sense of ownership (Locke & Latham, (2013). Prior empirical budgeting studies (for example, Carbonell & Rodriguez-Escudero, (2013) confirm that participation is positively associated with goal commitment.

#### **2.4 The Relationship between Sales force Personality Traits and Sales Performance**

Churchill et al as cited in Day (2011) did a meta-analysis that found no significant relationship between sales performance and sales force personality traits. Other studies though found a relationship between the two in that sales people are chosen through their character (Waheed, *et al.*, (2017). Poor research techniques used to determine the relationship between sales people characters and their performance led to the studies producing poor results and past researches compared to recent ones have showed completely different results (Wrzesniewski *et al.*, 2014).

Sales performance was found to be greatly affected by sales people characters as some academicians used effective techniques to compare results (Madjar *et al.*, 2011; Lepper & Greene, 2015; Apasu & Buatsi, 2015). The academicians made use of approaches such as personality and personal characteristics to determine how exactly

performance was affected. Another study by Apasu & Buatsi (2015) used different types of personality traits in an industrial sales organization to assess the executives. In this case personality traits were measured using many instruments. They found that endurance, empathy and ego were the significant traits that affected performance. Other studies used different traits to measure performance on different perspectives (Coomer, 2016; Colletti & Tubridy, 2013).

Sales performance has been evaluated by many researchers on a five-factor model (Gallagher, 2012; Fletcher, 2013; Ma *et al.*, 2013; Salleh & Kamaruddin, 2011; Waheed *et al.*, 2017; Sitsler *et al.*, 2013; Yakasai & Jan, 2015). Other studies done by Baririck & Mount, 2013; Beattie *et al.*, 2011) also indicated that conscientiousness is a sales person trait that predicts sales performance. Barrick & Mount (2013) on the other hand, evaluated performance by using extraversion and agreeableness traits to determine their relationship. Delpechitre, (2013) also indicated that conscientiousness had an effect on organizational sales.

Sales performance was also believed to be influenced by conscientiousness and extraversion. Agreeableness and extraversion were found to have no effects on sales performance (Tadepalli *et al.*, 2011). Delpechitre, (2013) insists that performance is greatly affected by people with great conscientiousness and extraversion personality traits. Also people with low emotional stability are found to have low efficiency in their work. But the traits that have been found to greatly affect performance were conscientiousness, agreeableness, and openness (Cake *et al.*, 2015); (Heritage *et al.*, 2015).

Most studies have found conscientiousness to be a major personal trait that affects performance. This was because most of the studies focused mostly on how an

individual's performance was affected by the big-five personality traits (Apasu & Buatsi, 2015; Delpechitre, 2013). Many researchers have made efforts in identifying and testing of personality traits Tajeddini, (2011), and Maples *et al.*, (2015). These five dimensions of character traits should then be given special attention when measuring performance (McCrae *et al.*, 2011; Sitser *et al.*, 2013). These five personality traits are known as five-factor model (FFM).

A person's way of being outgoing, active, and assertive explains his/her extraversion character (Low, 2011). An employee who is extravert plays his roles effectively and enjoys doing his/her work in the firm (Maples *et al.*, 2015). Interpersonal relationships are created by extraverted people due to their outgoing character (Ma *et al.*, 2013). Extroverts' main characters are being cheerful, energetic, and optimistic about their actions (Handa & Gulati, (2014). They are also active, talkative, excited, and comfortable around people (Sung & Choi, (2011). Extroverts' approach their life vigorously Tan and Waheed (2011). Generally, being an extrovert is being talkative, starting conversations, exciting and bold minded (Apasu & Buatsi, 2015; Fletcher, 2013).

Due to these facts on an extraverted, this character trait is thus essential in the sales function (Stringer *et al.*, 2011). Sales executives are created by bringing together different factors. The most important factors are their characters which include knowledge, skills, ability and behavior (Verbeke *et al.*, 2011). These factors do not necessary apply in all cases of selecting sales executives. In some cases, an executive may possess all the above characters but suffer de-motivation which makes him to perform poorly (Agrawal *et al.*, 2012; Bakker *et al.*, 2012). Another factor that may affect an executive not to perform well is if there are competitors that keep interfering with his work. This may affect their level of competence compared to other sales

executives (Barrick *et al.*, 2013). Non-rewarding of executives and not having a good relationship with their managers may also affect their level of competence (Beer and Brooks, 2011; Benet-Martínez *et al.*, (2015).

The variances and similarities of a human being are examined by his/her character traits (Hogan & Shelton, 2013). One's similarities are used to determine performance and behavior while variances are used to measure one's performance and behavior (Bidee, 2013; Blocker, 2012; Buller & McEvoy, 2012). Other researchers were also in agreement that personality is the main factor in determining job performance Benet-Martinez, (2015). Most of the organizations adopt the personality technique during the process of selecting sales people (Beattie *et al.*, 2011; Barrick *et al.*, 2013).

#### **2.4.1 The Mediating Effect of Goal Commitment**

An intermediary variable that exists between a dependent and independent variable is what makes the dependent variable to be impacted by the independent variable in a mechanism of a mediation effect (MacKinnon, 2011). Direct and indirect effects break down the mediation effect (Garson, 2013). The effects are tested by use of two regression equations by use of a simplified method. The independent variable and the mediating variable are linked by the two effects.

When the influence of dependent variable on independent variable is transmitted through the presence of one or more variables, then the mediating effect/indirect effect is defined (Pardo & Román, 2013; MacKinnon, 2011). Many studies have focused on finding out how goal commitment can be enhanced through uncovering of its antecedents (Markman & Baron, 2013; Mitchell & Albright, 2012). This study therefore has focused on tabling the factors that determine goal commitment. Other studies have brought out the effect of self-efficacy as one of the factors that affects the

commitment of employees to attain a specific goal (Latham, 2013; Naylor *et al.*, 2013; Omari *et al.*, 2012).

The same way goal commitment is viewed in different dimensions and different motives, the same way that commitment is often viewed (Sholihin *et al.*, 2011; Locke & Latham, 2013). Goals are attained simply because the people involved want to attain it. They achieve it because they have the will and desire to have the goal attained (Sandalgaard *et al.*, 2011). The feeling of wanting to attain a specific goal is motivated by one's obligations or normative considerations (Aubé & Rousseau, 2011). Others simply attain the goal because they feel the cost of not achieving it might be so high.

Commitment is viewed and conceptualized in three different dimensions; they are affective, normative and continuance commitment (Meyer *et al.*, 2012; Silva, 2013). These dimensions provide different motives of commitment and not the different types of commitment. High commitment levels are also connected to expectancy of achieving the goal, the attractiveness of the goal and the specificity of the goal (O'Reilly & Chatman, 2016; Salleh & Kamaruddin, 2011; Malik *et al.*, 2015). There is no clear cut in most of the findings of studies done on goal commitment. For example the studies done on the effects of monetary rewards on goal commitment have brought out mixed reactions from the respondents. Other examples are on studies done on the effects of extrinsic factors on goal commitment. Some studies found that extrinsic factors affect goal commitment only when low goals are involved while other studies found no effect of extrinsic factors on goal commitment (Mitchell & Albright, 2012; Marques-Quinteiro & Curras, 2012).

#### **2.4.2 The Moderating effect of Feedback Seeking Behaviour**

When two or more variables thorough interaction of the moderation effect has an influence on other variables then the effect of moderation is felt. Cohen *et al.*, 2013; Hayes & Scharkow, 2013; Dalal & Zickar, 2012) explain that this effect is felt when there is an accordance of another variable *Z* through the impact of independent variable *X* on dependent variable *Y*. This third variable *Z* is sometimes a continuous, involvement or a categorical variable (Aguinis *et al.*, 2013).

Preacher and Kelley (2011); Hayes and Scharkow (2013) used the word *conditional effect* to describe the moderating effect as they indicated that it is a contingency factor that influences the strength, direction and/or significance of the connection that exists between the two variables. The relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable can be effectively verified by analyzing moderating effects which helps in understanding the conditions involved. Analyzing of moderating effects also helps to measure the level of maturity and sophistication present in the field of research (Aguinis *et al.*, 2013; Dalal, & Zickar, 2012).

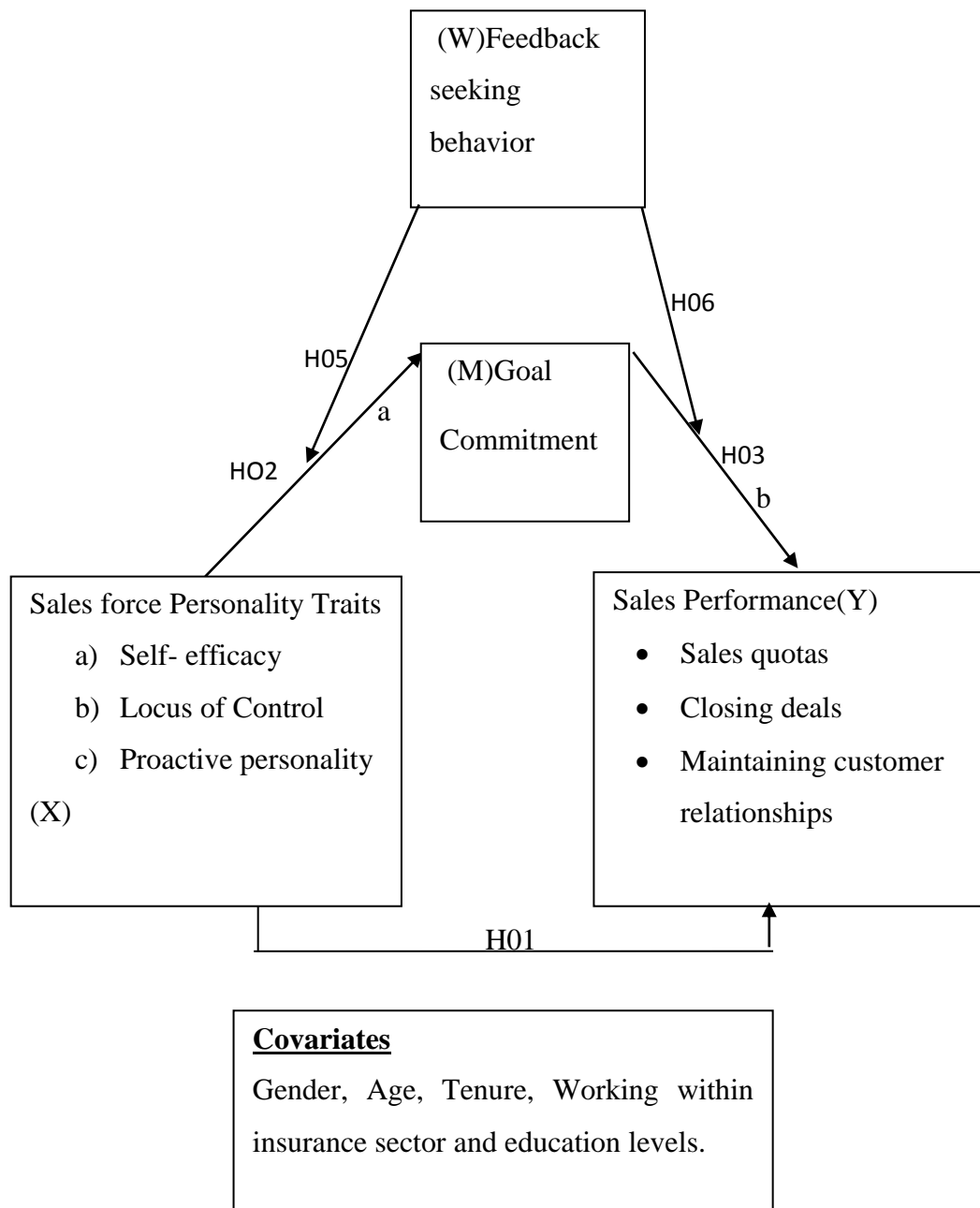
Individuals' characteristics are used to determine the influence feedback has on them as certain feedback has more impact than others. Motivation was found to be boosted in some studies by feedback given related to personally valued goals while motivation was increased when feedback provided was related to obligatory goals (Van Dijk & Kluger, 2011). Feedback was also found to be affected by individual-level factors (Ng *et al.*, 2011) as in some cases individuals with high self-efficacy embraced feedback in a positive (Northcraft *et al.*, 2011; Peighambari *et al.*, 2012) way while those with low self-efficacy embraced it negatively. Other studies show that the usefulness of feedback can be determined by the original reason why an individual sought for it

(Krasman, 2011; Halper & Vancouver, 2016). This was because of two main reasons why people seek for feedback; to benefit their egos or to manage their impressions. But the only feedback that improves performance is one that an individual seeks with intentions of using it productively (Ivers *et al.*, 2014).

## **2.5 Conceptual Framework**

The conceptual framework in figure 2.1 illustrates the interrelationships in this study, the key variables involved and how they are interrelated. This study focused mostly on distinctive behavioral characteristics of salespersons (self-efficacy, locus of control and proactive personality) and their influence on sales performance. In the framework, the outcome dimension of sales performance which results in the behavioral dimension was applied. A positive link between sales performance and the level of people's involvement in their job due to sales outcome dimension (sales quotas, closing deals and maintaining customer relationships has resulted to people seeing it as evidence to people's behavioral performance (Oliver & Andreson, 1994 as cited in Schwepker & Good, (2012). Goal commitment was used as the mediating variable in the study. Goal commitment has a strong relationship in that sales personnel must possess commitment to attain great performance. When the organization fails to evaluate and ensure that the sales behaviors are in line, the sales personnel therefore engages in a try and error method to try and please his/her superiors and also to achieve his/her goals (Yürür & Sarikaya, (2012). Feedback seeking behaviour moderated the interactions in the study. Information that the management gives to the employees enables them to develop role clarity that helps in attaining of the organizations goals and improvement of performance (Barrick *et al.*, 2013).





**Figure 2.1: Conceptual model**

**Source: Author (2016)**

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.0 Overview**

This chapter comprises of the following sub sections: description of the study area, research design, target population, sampling design, sample size, sampling technique, data collection, validity and reliability of the research instruments, data processing and analysis, outline of the data presentation techniques and ethical considerations.

#### **3.1 Description of the Study Area**

The research was carried out in Mombasa County in Kenya. Mombasa is a city on the Coast of Kenya ([www.mombasa.go.ke](http://www.mombasa.go.ke)). It is the country's second largest city, after Nairobi, with an estimated population of about 1.2 million people in 2016. It is the smallest county in Kenya, covering an area of 229.7km<sup>2</sup> excluding 65km<sup>2</sup> of water mass. It borders Kilifi county to the North, Kwale county to the south west and the Indian ocean to the East. Mombasa County is a cosmopolitan town with people of all lifestyles and with multiple social/ cultural, economic and religious societies. The County has a high percentage of population and most insurance sales agents are not scattered, thus making data collection possible as compared to a big city like Nairobi.

#### **3.2 Research Philosophy**

This study was approached from a positivism philosophy point of view. According to Kombo and Tromp (2000), the positivism school of thought is grounded on the philosophy that only one reality exist though can only be known imperfectly due to human limitations and researchers can only discover this reality within the realm of probability.

Martin and Field (2015) added that according to the school of thought, the researcher and the subjects were independent; didn't influence each other or outcome. Thus, the researcher upheld objectivity by remaining neutral to prevent values and biasness from influencing outcome. This study achieved this by applying scientific research approaches from sampling to analysis and interpretation. Positivism approaches vouch for experimental methods of data collection that can be modified as it is challenging to subject human to conditions.

Keraro (2014) cites that, the positivist philosophy pre-supposes that there is an objective realism that people can know certainty and that symbols can accurately describe and explain this objective reality. The epistemological stance of this research followed quantitate paradigm as it relied primarily on the collection of quantitative data. It was approached in a hypothetical way with the aim of testing hypothesis with data and generalizing the findings (Remenyi *et al.*, 1998).

### **3.3 Research Design**

A research design is a detailed plan that enumerates the specific methods and procedures of data collection and analysis to ensure that the evidence obtained enables the researcher to answer the research questions in an unambiguous manner. A research strategy to collect data uses existing theory to develop hypotheses and these hypotheses are then tested and confirmed, in whole or part, or refuted, leading to further development of theory which then may be tested by further research. The study used explanatory research design in the form of a survey. Cooper and Schindler (2008) agree that explanatory survey can be done to explain hypothesized relationships.

Further, Hair *et al.*, (2006) confirms that explanatory research design allows the use of inferential statistics to find out the relationship between the dependent and independent variables. It is also appropriate for studies that seek to establish causal relationships between variables (Saunders *et al.*, 2011). Advantages of using surveys for this research includes its cost effectiveness, flexibility and efficiency in collecting large amounts of data for statistical analysis, and quick turnaround in the data collection phase (Hair *et al.*, 2010).

### **3.4 Target Population**

According to Cooper and Schindler (2008), a population is the total collection of elements about which the researcher wishes to make inference. The target population is the larger group to which one hopes to generalize or apply his findings (Nyororo, 2006). This study therefore identified the insurance companies as target population and specifically thirty nine (39) firms operating in Mombasa County as shown in table 3.1. The source of the data was retrieved from Association of Kenya Insurers (AKI) 2013. According to AKI, there are 68 insurance firms in Kenya. In Mombasa there are 39 firms with over 1000 sales agents. The respondents of this study were all authorized sales agents working in all insurance companies with branches in Mombasa Kenya as at May 2017 and were also used as unit of analysis. The distribution of these agents per company is shown in table 3.1.

**Table 3.1: Target Population**

<b>Company</b>	<b>Population of sales agent</b>
1. Aar Insurance Kenya	15
2. African Merchant Assurance (Amaco)	10
3. Aig Insurance Company	10
4. Apa Insurance Company	35
5. Britam General Insurance	180
6. Cannon Assurance Company (Metro cannon)	10
7. CIC General Insurance Company	25
8. Corporate Insurance Company	10
9. Directline Assurance Company	10
10. Fidelity Shield Insurance	15
11. First Assurance Company	10
12. Ga Insurance Company	10
13. Gateway Insurance Company (Sanham)	15
14. Geminia Insurance Company	15
15. Heritage Insurance Company	30
16. Icea Lion General Insurance	50
17. Invesco Assurance Company	10
18. Jubilee Insurance Company	120
19. Kenindia Assurance Company	25
20. Kenya Orient Insurance	10
21. Madison Insurance Company	25
22. Mayfair Insurance Company	10
23. Occidental Insurance Company	10
24. Pacis Insurance Company	15
25. Phoenix Of East Africa	10
26. Resolution Health Insurance	15
27. Saham Assurance	15
28. Takaful Insurance Of Africa	15
29. The Kenyan Alliance Insurance	10
30. The Monarch Insurance	10
31. Trident Insurance Company	10
32. Uap Insurance Company	80
33. Xplico Insurance Company	10
34. Barclays Life Assurance	15
35. Old Mutual Assurance Company	80
36. Pan Africa Insurance Company	15
37. Pioneer Assurance Company	10
38. Prudential Life Assurance Kenya	15
39. Liberty Life Assurance Kenya	15
<b>Total</b>	<b>1000</b>

*Source: AKI (2010)*

### 3.5 Sampling Design

This was the definite plan that was used to obtain a sample from the chosen population. It is the technique or the procedure the study adopted in selecting items for the sample (Hair *et al.*, 2010). Sampling is an element of data collection or a section of the population that is selected for a research activity (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). It is the process of obtaining information about an entire population by examining only a part of it. Cooper & Schindler, (2008); Oso & Onen 2011), argue that sampling is commonly used in inferential statistics to make predictions on the behavior of a population.

#### 3.5.1 Sample Size

A sample is the part of the population picked to be involved in a study. According to Martin and Field (2015) sampling is the process of selecting items, persons and objects from a target population so that it is representative. The population was divided into thirty nine strata reflecting the representation of all the insurance companies with branches in Mombasa. Since the study population was 1000, it adopted the Cochran's formula (1977) and recommended by Fisher, (1991) to obtain the desired sample size as follows:

$$n = \frac{Z^2 pq}{d^2}$$

Where

n= the desired sample size (where population is greater than 1000)

z= the standard normal deviate, usually set at 1.96(or more simply at 2.0), which corresponds to the 95 percent confidence level.

P= the proportion in the target population estimated to have a particular characteristic.

q = 1.0-p

$d$  = degree of accuracy desired, usually set at .05 or occasionally at .02

Therefore the sample size was 399.

Following the suggestion by Comfrey and Lee (1992) that a sample size of 50-100 is considered very poor; 100-200 very poor; 300-400 good; 400-500 very good, and over 1000-excellent, and based on an assumption of a response rate of previous research (Salkind, 2010) the sample size was increased by 25% and calculated as  $399 \times .255 = 101 + 399 = 500$ . This large sample allowed for a reasonable and an accurate interpretation of the results.

### **3.5.2 Sampling Procedure**

The study targeted all the thirty nine insurance companies with branches in Mombasa. Proportionate stratified random sampling was used to select representatives of the sample from each of the company. To obtain respondents, the researcher approached all sales agents who had worked for not less than six months.

**Table 3.2: Proportion of Sample size per insurance company**

<b>Company</b>	<b>Population of sales agent</b>	<b>Sample size p/1000*399</b>
1. Aar Insurance Kenya	15	6
2. African Merchant Assurance (Amaco)	10	4
3. Aig Insurance Company	10	4
4. Apa Insurance Company	35	14
5. Britam General Insurance	180	72
6. Cannon Assurance Company (Metro cannon)	10	4
7. Cic General Insurance Company	25	10
8. Corporate Insurance Company	10	4
9. Directline Assurance Company	10	4
10. Fidelity Shield Insurance	15	6
11. First Assurance Company	10	4
12. Ga Insurance Company	10	4
13. Gateway Insurance Company (Sanham)	15	6
14. Geminia Insurance Company	15	6
15. Heritage Insurance Company	30	11
16. Icea Lion General Insurance	50	20
17. Invesco Assurance Company	10	4
18. Jubilee Insurance Company	120	48
19. Kenindia Assurance Company	25	10
20. Kenya Orient Insurance	10	4
21. Madison Insurance Company	25	10
22. Mayfair Insurance Company	10	4
23. Occidental Insurance Company	10	4
24. Pacis Insurance Company	15	6
25. Phoenix Of East Africa	10	4
26. Resolution Health Insurance	15	6
27. Saham Assurance	15	6
28. Takaful Insurance Of Africa	15	6
29. The Kenyan Alliance Insurance	10	4
30. The Monarch Insurance	10	4
31. Trident Insurance Company	10	4
32. Uap Insurance Company	80	32
33. Xplico Insurance Company	10	4
34. Barclays Life Assurance	15	6
35. Old Mutual Assurance Company	80	32
36. Pan Africa Insurance Company	15	6
37. Pioneer Assurance Company	10	4
38. Prudential Life Assurance Kenya	15	6
39. Liberty Life Assurance Kenya	15	6
<b>Total</b>	<b>1000</b>	<b>399</b>

**Source: AKI (2010)**



### **3.6 Data Collection Instruments and Procedure**

Primary data was collected using a questionnaire. A questionnaire with high reliability would receive similar answers if it is done again and again or by other researchers (Bryman & Bell, 2015). In addition the questionnaires are convenient for the task in that they can be easily and conveniently administered with the study sample. A questionnaire is a scheduled interview form or measuring instrument including a formalized set of questions for obtaining information from respondents (Kothari, 2004).

Structured questionnaires were used to collect primary data from respondents. The questionnaire was administered to the respondents by five research assistants from the college of insurance within Mombasa County. Secondary data was obtained from related materials in the internet, procurement journals, white papers, periodicals and books relevant to the study.

The questionnaire consisted of two sections, that is section A and section B. Section B contained the variables related to demographics such as age, gender, level of education, work tenure and duration worked. Variables related to the constructs of sales performance, Salesforce personality traits, goal commitment and feedback seeking behavior and how they were tested were in section A. The questionnaire was pre tested several times among insurance sales agents from Nairobi County.

Research assistants were recruited and trained to assist the researcher in administering the questionnaires to the respondents. The researcher coordinated the whole process by providing guidance and feedback to the research assistants. On completion of data collection, all the research instruments were checked for completeness before data entry and analysis.

### **3.7 Measurements of Variables**

In order to ensure content validity, measures that had been used in previous studies was adopted. All the items adopted 5-point Likert scale which was used to get the response indicating a score of 1=Strongly Agree; 2=Agree; 3=Disagree; 4= Strongly Agree; 5= Neither Agree or Disagree. Likert scale was used because it was easy to understand and responses are easily quantifiable and subjective to computation of mathematical analysis (Allen *et al.*, 2011).

#### **3.7.1 Control Variables**

The study provided information on other additional variables that were considered necessary to control so as to isolate the direct and moderated effect of salesforce personality traits and sales performance (Sakakibara *et al.*, 1997). These control variables were age, gender, tenure, education level, working duration and working experience within the insurance sector. Gender was measured through the number of male and female respondents. Age was measured through five categories of age namely: between 18-25 years, 26-33 years, 34-41 years, 42-49 years and above 50 years. Education level was measured at post graduate degree, bachelors, diploma, professional course and high school levels. Employee tenure and working within the sector was measured with the following age ranges: 1-5 years, 6-10 years, 11-15 years, 16-20 years and above 21 years.

#### **3.7.2 Measurement of Dependent variable-Sales Performance**

Sales performance was measured by using subjective questions rather than objective questions asking participants to rate on a five-point scale from their job performance as indicated by their last formal performance evaluation. This was based on the study done by Verbeke *et al.*, (2011). Respondents were required to answer to the following

statements; “How would you rate yourself in terms of the quantity of work (e.g., sales) you achieve? How do you rate yourself in terms of the quality of your performance in regard to customer relations? How do you rate yourself in terms of quality of your performance in regard to knowledge of your products? How would you rate your performance in sales presentation effectiveness? How do you rate yourself in terms of quality of your performance in regard to knowledge of your competitors' products? How do you rate yourself in terms of quality of your performance in regard to knowledge of your customer needs? How do you rate yourself in terms of your performance in regard to the time taken to close a deal? The items adopted 5-point Likert scale which was used to get the response indicating a score of 1=Strongly Disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Neutral; 4= Agree; 5= Strongly Agree

### **3.7.3 Measurements of Independent variables-Salesforce personality traits**

The three dimensions of Salesforce personality traits: Self-Efficacy, Locus of Control, and Proactive Personality was measured. Self-efficacy was measured with items adapted from Chen *et al.*, (2011). The statements answered included the following: “I know the right thing to do in selling situations; Overall, I am confident of my ability to perform my job well; I feel I am very capable at the task of selling; I feel I have the capabilities to successfully perform this job; Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well; I always perform effectively on many different tasks; When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them”. The items adopted 5-point Likert scale which was used to get the response indicating a score of 1=Strongly Disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Neutral; 4= Agree; 5= Strongly Agree.

Locus of control Locus of control was measured with the Internality subscale of Levenson’s (1981). Levenson’s measure exhibits moderate reliability and has been used in a wide variety of samples (Levenson, 1981). The respondents were required to

respond to the following statements: “It is my belief that I can solely overcome the obstacles on sales work; I Personally should be responsible for the failure of not reaching the sales quota; My behavior can greatly influence my selling outcome; Sales performance is strongly related to the efforts I have made; I belief that making money is a matter of good fortune; I am in this position because of the connections I have; I will get promoted because of luck”. The items adopted 5-point Likert scale which was used to get the response indicating a score of 1=Strongly Disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Neutral; 4= Agree; 5= Strongly Agree.

Proactive personality was measured with items adapted from Markose *et al.*,(2009), the following Statements were asked;” I am always fixing what is wrong; I am very reliable to my customers; I always solve customers’ problems; If I believe in an idea, no obstacle will prevent me from making it happen; No matter what the odds, if I believe in something I will make it happen; I love being a champion for my ideas, even against others' opposition; I excel at identifying opportunities”. The items adopted 5-point Likert scale which was used to get the response indicating a score of 1=Strongly Disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Neutral; 4= Agree; 5= Strongly Agree

#### **3.7.4 Measurement of the Mediator- Goal Commitment**

Goal commitment was measured with items adapted from Klein *et al.*, (2012). This new scale pulls together previously used single item measures of goal commitment and the results suggest that this scale is a psychometrically sound, construct relevant, robust, and widely generalizable measure of one's determination to reach a goal. Participants were asked to respond to the following statements about the overall goal in their work such as:” I am strongly committed to pursuing my goal; I think a goal is good to shoot for; I am willing to put forth a great deal of effort beyond what I'd normally do to achieve my goal; It wouldn't take much to make me abandon my goal;

It's hard to take a goal seriously; There is much to be gained by trying to achieve a goal; No situation will stop me from pursuing this goal". The items adopted 5-point Likert scale which was used to get the response indicating a score of 1=Strongly Disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Neutral; 4= Agree; 5= Strongly Agree

### **3.7.5 Measurement of the Moderator-Feedback Seeking Behavior**

Feedback seeking behaviour was measured with items adapted from Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability scale (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960. Statements such as "I prefer to be told my overall work performance, "I prefer to be told how I can improve my performance," I prefer not to be told how well I am doing on the job in general, "It is important to know how my job performance compares to that of my co-workers." "I seek information from other co-workers about my work performance". I seek feedback from my supervisor about potential for advancement within the company' 'my supervisor's evaluation of my performance is important because he/she controls my future in the company," The items adopted 5-point Likert scale which was used to get the response indicating a score of 1=Never; 2= Rarely; 3=Sometimes; 4= Often; 5= Always

## **3.8 Reliability and Validity of Research Instruments**

### **3.8.1 Validity**

Validity of scale is defined as the extent to which differences in observed scale scores reflect the true differences among objects or the characteristics being measured (Malhotra & Dash, 2011). Measurement validity can be done through construct validity. In this research, construct validity was used as a tool for validity measurement, and the principle component factor analysis was adopted to measure the validity of the construct.

### **3.8.2 Reliability**

Testing of the reliability of the scale is very important as it shows the extent to which a scale produces consistent results if measurements are made repeatedly. According to Bryman & Bell, (2007) reliability is whether the concept and the result are reliable and if the study can be replicated with the same result. The study employed measures from already tested constructs but it was necessary to carry out an individual test to examine if all items measure the same concept, the expectation was that they would all correlate well together. Any items that have consistently low correlations across the board were removed from the questionnaire to make it more reliable. At the same time, the individual items Cronbach's alpha was considered to determine which item could be deleted to improve the reliability of the questionnaire.

Cronbach's alpha was used to determine the internal reliability of the questionnaire that was used in the study (Malhotra & Dash, 2011). A higher Cronbach's value reflected greater internal consistency among the questionnaire items. With regard to the acceptable level, Nunnally (1978) suggests that a Cronbach's greater than 0.9 indicates high reliability, 0.7 less than a less than 0.9 medium reliability, less than 0.5 reveals low reliability and thus the item should be rejected. The composite reliability scale with sound convergent validity must exceed 0.7, which suggests that comparatively good internal consistency existed among the relevant indicators (Nunnally, 1978).

### **3.9 Data Analysis and Presentation**

All data analyses were carried out using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences. Descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations and frequencies) were used for characterization purposes. Pearson's correlation was performed to test

associations between study variables. A computational tool for path analysis-based moderation and mediation analysis as well as their combination was used to test the proposed indirect and interaction effects (PROCESS). This computational tool was designed by Andrew F. Hayes. In addition to estimating the coefficients of the model using regression, it generates direct and indirect effects in mediation models and conditional indirect effects in moderated mediation models. To test the interactions, variables were centered. Bootstrapping with bias-corrected and accelerated confidence intervals for conditional and unconditional indirect effects was used.

Bootstrapping is a sample estimation procedure using repeated resampling (random sampling with replacement) based on an original sample (Efron & Tibshirani, 1993). It is a robust procedure that is equally suited to non-normal distributions and small samples. It is particularly useful when analyzing moderated mediation, given that indirect and interaction effects very often have non-normal distributions (Edwards & Lambert, 2007).

Bootstrapping therefore provides a more precise estimation of conditional indirect effects using a reliable statistical test and generating a confidence interval for the lower and upper limits of the moderated mediation effect (this interval must exclude zero in order to be significant). The bootstrapping procedure is now embedded in various software programs such as SPSS and SAS or structural equation-type applications (Mplus, Lisrel, Stata or Amos). It has been directly integrated into the macro (Hayes, 2013a). Finally, it is generally recommended to produce at least 1,000, if not 5,000 or 10,000 resamples and to opt for the percentile, bias-corrected or accelerated bootstrap procedures (Hayes & Scharkow, 2013; Preacher *et al.*, 2007).

### **3.9.1 Data Entry and Verification**

The data collected was coded and entered into process macro. The individual item scores in all the study variables including the demographic data were coded and recorded. High scores represented agreement and low scores represented disagreement with statements. In addition, data was screened and cleaned to avoid cases of distortions since missing data leads to biased results. Two steps were followed; first checking for errors and secondly correcting for errors. Frequencies for each variable was inspected to check for any scores that fall outside the acceptable range. Descriptive statistics was performed after making sure that the data contains no errors. Moreover, this process ensured that the assumptions of multiple linear regressions are upheld (Pallant, 2010).

### **3.9.2 Testing Assumptions**

Statistical tests assumptions were carried out on the variables used in the analysis of data to ensure that the results were trustworthy and did not result in Type I or Type II error, or over or under estimation of the level of significance or size of effects. Hair *et al.*, (2006) suggests that, assumptions for multiple linear regressions should be tested twice; for individual variables and multiple regression models. The tests were carried to ensure that the violations of assumptions do not lead to any serious bias or whether they were of little consequence and were of essential meaningful data analysis (Pedhazur, 1997).

#### **3.9.2.1 Normality Test**

To test for Normality an inspection was done on the regression standardized residual histogram which indicated that the data was normally distributed. In addition, the regression standardized residual was also found to be normally distributed whereby



the observed and expected values were found along the line, without any significant departures from it.

### **3.9.2.2 Linearity Test**

Linearity was tested using correlations among variables and also by creating scatter plots. Moreover Hair *et al.*, (2006) suggests that examining the residual scatter plots is the most common way to identify any non-linear patterns in the data. The purpose is to detect the inter-correlations among pairs of independent variables and hence determine the likelihood of multi collinearity occurring. Multicollinearity was tested using tolerance and Variance inflation factor (VIF). The rule of thumb is that  $VIF > 4.0$  and tolerance  $< .20$  indicates multicollinearity problem in the analysis.

### **3.9.2.3 Homoscedasticity/Heteroscedasticity Tests:**

Homoscedasticity assumes that the variance of errors is the same across all levels of the independent variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). The lack of Homoscedasticity may either mean that there is an interaction effect between a measured independent variable and unmeasured independent variable not in the model; or that some independent variables are skewed while others are not. This assumption was checked by visualizing the scatter plots and partial regression plots for the individual independent variables (Pallant, 2010). Heteroscedasticity is indicated when the residuals are not evenly scattered around the line. According to Osborne & Waters, (2002), residuals should lie between -2 and/or +2 points.

### **3.9.3 Correlation Analysis**

Pearson correlation analysis was used to examine the relationship between the variables (Jahangir & Begum, 2008). According to Wong & Hiew, (2005) the correlation coefficient value ( $r$ ) that range from 0.10 to 0.29 is considered weak, any

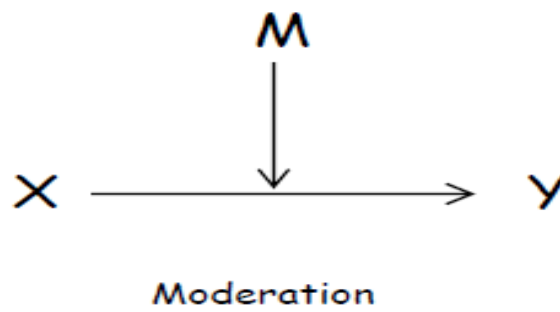
that lies between 0.30 to 0.49 is considered medium and from 0.50 to 1.0 is considered strong. However, according to Field, (2005), correlation coefficient should not go beyond 0.8 to avoid multicollinearity.

### **3.9.4 Hypothesis Testing**

The following models were tested to confirm or reject the study's stated objectives: The adopted model was PROCESS for SPSS and SAS 2013-2015 (Model 4 and 58) by Andrew F. Hayes. The methodological approach used to test moderated mediation effects (conditional indirect effects) A moderated mediation effect indicates the presence, in a single model, of one or more mediating variables and one or more moderating variables *Hayes (2013a, 2013b)*.

#### **3.9.4.1 Moderator**

A moderator is a variable that specifies conditions under which a given predictor is related to an outcome. The moderator explains 'when' a DV and IV are related. Moderation implied an interaction effect, where introducing a moderating variable changes the direction or magnitude of the relationship between two variables. A moderation effect could be (a) Enhancing, where increasing the moderator would increase the effect of the predictor (IV) on the outcome (DV); (b) Buffering, where increasing the moderator would decrease the effect of the predictor on the outcome; or (c) Antagonistic, where increasing the moderator would reverse the effect of the predictor on the outcome.



*Source: Hayes (2013)*

Where:

X is a) Self-efficacy, b) Locus of Control, c) Proactive personality

Y is Sales performance

M is Feedback seeking behaviour

Steps used in Testing Moderation

1. All variables were standardized to make interpretations easier afterwards and to avoid multicollinearity (the SPSS process macro ran automatically).
2. Categorical variables were dummy coded and product terms for the predictor and moderator variables were created automatically.
3. Regression model (block 1) was fitted predicting the outcome on Sales Performance from both the predictor variable X (a) Self efficacy, b) Locus of Control, c) Proactive Personality) and the moderator M (Feedback Seeking Behaviour). In Both effects as well as the model in general (R<sup>2</sup>) was significant.
4. The interaction effect to the previous model (block 2) was added and checked for a significant R<sup>2</sup> change as well as a significant effect by the new interaction term. If significant, hence moderation was deemed to be occurring.

### 3.9.4.2 Conducting the Analysis in SPSS

Moderation was checked using linear regression menu item in SPSS. Categorical variables were dummy coded and centered. The interaction effect(s) was manually created. PROCESS developed by Andrew F. Hayes model 58 which does the centering and interaction terms automatically was used.

1. Uncentered interaction term was created then clicked on: Transform  
 Compute  Var1\*Var2
2. The model was ran with the uncentered interaction to get the amount of variance accounted for by the predictors with and without the interaction.

Step 1 - At this step, the interest was in if the models were significant and if the amount of variance accounted for in Model 2 (with the interaction) was significantly more than Model 1 (without the interaction).

Step 2 - Since there was a potentially significant moderation effect, the regression was run on the centered terms to examine the effect. This was done using an add-on process.

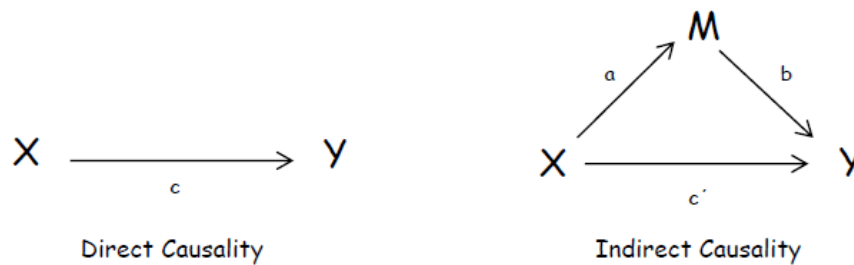
3. The data set was open, clicked on analyze, then regression, then PROCESS, by Andrew F. Hayes (<http://www.afhayes.com>).
4. While the PROCESS Dialog was open, the IV (Self efficacy, Locus of Control, Proactive personality) the DV (Sales performance) was selected and moved and the moderator variable (M) feedback seeking behaviour into their appropriate boxes.
5. Covariates (gender, age, education level, tenure, working within the sector) were also included in the appropriate box.
6. In order to test a moderation effect, the Model Number was set to 1.

7. Clicked on the Options button and selected appropriate options. To better examine the effect of a moderating variable, the first four options (Mean center for products, Heteroscedasticity consistent SEs, OLS/ML confidence intervals, and Generate data for plotting) was selected.
8. The syntax for this process was very long. A Syntax file was created by clicking on Paste. Bootstrapping was used to calculate standard errors and confidence intervals.

Output - The first part of the output lists the variables in the analysis, which clearly indicated the dependent variable (Y) Sales Performance, independent variable (X): Self Efficacy, Locus of Control, Proactive Personality, the Moderator (M) Feedback Seeking Behaviour. The total sample size (448) is also displayed. The results from a regression model are displayed which includes the interaction effect between the independent variable and the moderator. (Check index 4-Results)

### **3.9.4.3 Mediation**

Mediation implies a situation where the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable can best be explained using a third mediator variable which is caused by the independent variable and is itself a cause for the dependent variable. That is to say instead of X causing Y directly, X is causing the mediator M, and M is in turn causing Y. The formula of Hayes (2013), was used to test for the Indirect effect of X on Y through  $M_i = a_i b_i$ . The causal relationship between X and Y in this case is said to be indirect. The relationships between the independent, the mediator and the dependent variables can be depicted in form of a path diagram/model below:



*Source: Hayes (2013)*

Where:

X is a) Self-efficacy, b) Locus of control, c) Proactive personality.

Y is Sales performance

M is Goal commitment

Each arrow in a path diagram represents a causal relationship between two variables to which a coefficient or weight is assigned. These coefficients are nothing but the standardized regression coefficients (betas) showing the direction and magnitude of the effect of one variable on the other.

### **Variables**

Instead of using the terms independent and dependent variables, it would make more sense in the context of path models to speak of exogenous and endogenous variables.

**Exogenous Variables** – Variables which in the context of the model have no explicit causes. That is to say they have no arrows going to them.

**Endogenous Variables** – Variables which in the context of the model are causally affected by other variables. That is to say they have arrows going to them.

From a regression standpoint, for every endogenous variable in the model a regression model should be fitted.

### **Assumptions**

Continuous Measurements. All variables are assumed to be measured on a continuous scale.

Normality. All variables are assumed to follow a Normal distribution.

Independence. The errors associated with one observation are not correlated with the errors of any other observation.

Linearity: relationships among the variables are assumed to be linear.

#### Steps followed in Testing Mediation

First, confirmation on the significance of the relationship between the initial IV and DV ( $X \rightarrow Y$ ) was done.

Significance of the relationship between the initial IV and the mediator ( $X \rightarrow M$ ) was confirmed.

The significance of relationship between the mediator and the DV in the presence of the IV ( $M|X \rightarrow Y$ ) was confirmed.

The insignificance (or the meaningful reduction in effect) of the relationship between the initial IV and the DV in the presence of the mediator ( $X|M \rightarrow Y$ ) was confirmed.

Steps 3 and 4 will involved the same regression model.

#### **3.9.4.4 Conducting the Analysis in SPSS**

Mediation was tested by following the above steps using the regular linear regression menu item in SPSS, using a special PROCESS developed by Andrew F. Hayes model 4 which is described below. While the data set was open; click analyze, then regression, then PROCESS, by Andrew F. Hayes (<http://www.afhayes.com>). While

the PROCESS Dialog opened, the initial IV (self-efficacy, locus of control, proactive personalities), the DV (Sales performance) and the mediator variable (Goal commitment) were selected and moved into their appropriate boxes. Covariates (age, gender, education level, tenure, working within the sector) were included in the appropriate box. In order to test a mediation effect, the Model Number was set to 4. Options button was clicked and selected inappropriate options. To better examine the effect of a mediating variable, the last four options (Effect size, Sobel test, Total effect model, and Compare indirect effects) were selected.

The syntax for this process was very long. A syntax file was created by clicking on Paste. The first part of the output listed all variables in the analysis, indicating which is considered as a dependent variable (Y) Sales performance, independent variable (X) a) Self Efficacy, b) Locus of control, Proactive Personalities; Mediator (M) Goal commitment. The total sample size N (448) was also displayed. Then a series of regression models were fitted, first predicting the mediator variable using the independent variable (step 2); then the dependent variable using both the independent variable and the mediator (steps 3 and 4); and finally the dependent variable using the independent variable (step 1). In this case, while the independent variable was a significant predictor for both the dependent and the mediator variables, it was no longer significant in the presence of the mediator variable; confirming the mediation effect. A measure for the indirect effect of X on Y is also presented after the regression models.

$$M = \alpha_0 + \beta_1 X + \varepsilon_m \dots\dots\dots 1$$

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 M + c' X + \varepsilon_y \dots\dots\dots 2$$



$a \cdot b$ .....This is an indirect relationship which is represented by the product  $axb$  in equation (1) and (2)

$$M = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 X + \alpha_2 W + \alpha_3 XW + \varepsilon$$

$$Y = b_0 + b_1 M + b_2 W + b_3 MW + \varepsilon$$

$$Y = (b_0 + a_0 b_1 + a_2 b_1 W + b_2 W + a_0 b_3 W + a_2 b_3 W W) + (a_1 b_1 + a_3 b_1 W + a_1 b_3 W + a_3 b_3 W W + c') X$$

Where: Y = Represents the dependent variable (sales performance)

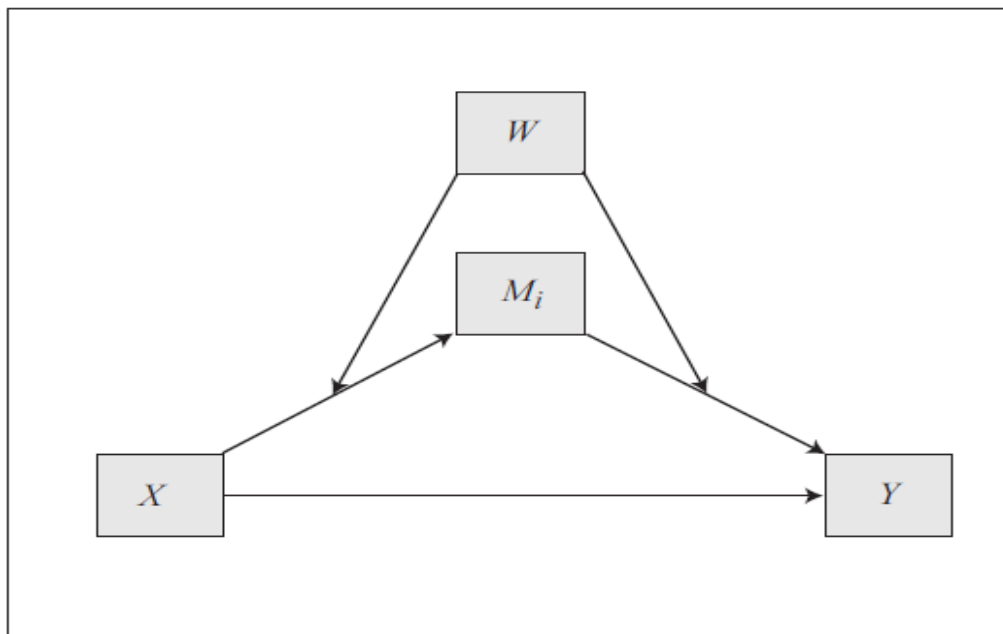
X = independent variables (Sales force personality traits)

$\alpha$  = Constant

$\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3, b_0, b_1, b_2, b_3$  = Partial regression coefficient

M = Goal commitment

W = Feedback seeking behavior



**Figure 3.1: Model for moderated mediation (Model 58)**

**Source: Hayes (2013a, 2013b).**

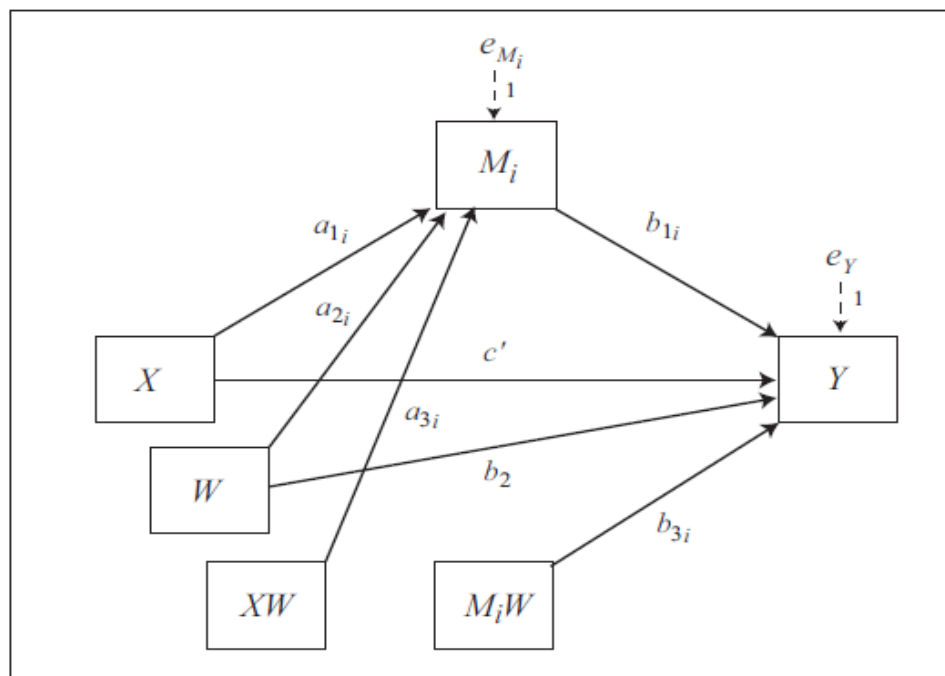
Where:

X is the Independent variable (a) Self Efficacy, b) Locus of Control, c) Proactive Personality)

Y is the dependent Variable (Sales Performance)

W is the Moderator (Feedback seeking behavior)

M is the Mediator (Goal commitment)



**Figure 3.2: Statistical Diagram**

**Source: Hayes (2013a, 2013b).**

Where:

X is the Independent variable (a) Self Efficacy, b) Locus of Control c) Proactive Personality)

Y is the dependent Variable (Sales Performance)

W is the Moderator (Feedback Seeking behavior)

M is the Mediator (Goal commitment)

**Table 3.3 Summary of the Testing**

<b>Statement of Hypothesis</b>	<b>Nature of Hypothesis</b>	<b>Test Statistics</b>	<b>Interpretation</b>
<b>HO<sub>1</sub>:</b> There is no significant direct effect of a) Self-efficacy, b) Locus of control, c) Proactive Personality on Sales Performance.	Direct Effect	$\beta, p, R^2, t$	When $p \leq 0.05$ – Reject hypothesis, accept otherwise
<b>HO<sub>2</sub>:</b> There is no significant direct effect of a) Self-efficacy, b) Locus of control, c) Proactive Personality on Goal Commitment.	Direct Effect	$\beta, p, R^2, t$	When $p \leq 0.05$ – Reject hypothesis, accept otherwise
<b>HO<sub>3</sub>:</b> There is no significant direct effect of Goal Commitment on Sales Performance.	Direct Effect	$\beta, p, R^2, t$	When $p \leq 0.05$ – Reject hypothesis, accept otherwise
<b>HO<sub>4</sub>:</b> There is no significant Mediating effect of Goal Commitment on the relationship between a) Self-efficacy, b) Locus of control, c) Proactive Personality and sales performance	Mediating Effect	$\Delta\beta, p, \Delta R^2, t, LLCI$ and $ULCI$	Complete mediation, Complimentary mediation
<b>HO<sub>5</sub>:</b> There is no significant Moderating effect of Feedback Seeking Behaviour on the relationship between a) Self-efficacy, b) Locus of control, c) Proactive Personality and Goal Commitment	Moderating Effect	$\Delta\beta, p, \Delta R^2, t, LLCI$ and $ULCI$	Full moderation and Partial moderation
<b>HO<sub>6</sub>:</b> There is no significant Moderating effect of Feedback Seeking Behaviour on the relationship between Goal commitment and Sales Performance	Moderating Effect	$\Delta\beta, p, \Delta R^2, t, LLCI$ and $ULCI$	Full moderation and partial moderation
<b>HO<sub>7</sub>:</b> Feedback seeking behaviour does not have any significant Moderating effect on the indirect relationship between a) Self-efficacy, b) Locus of control, c) Proactive Personality and Sales Performance via Goal Commitment.	Moderated Mediation Effect	$\Delta\beta, p, \Delta R^2, t, LLCI$ and $ULCI$	Complete mediation, Complimentary mediation

### **3.10 Limitations of the Study**

Since the study used survey to collect data, it could not gain full sense of the social processes in their natural settings. In addition, the respondents in the study might have falsified their responses. This was in consideration of Yetton & Sharma (2001) who agreed that respondents might not always be truthful in their answers to the survey. Some respondents might have deliberately withheld some vital information due to bureaucracy and secrecy upheld in many life insurance companies.

Though deliberate effort is being made to have a worthwhile study with sufficient validity and reliability, this work should not be viewed as a final solution to sales force personality traits and sales performance in the insurance industry. There was constraint of resources for reference purposes especially responses on collection of data.

The study was focused in Mombasa County. Future studies should be conducted in the whole of Kenya. Since insurance still remains as an unsought good in Kenya, it would be interesting to carry out a comparative study involving other developing countries within the east African community.

Many respondents gave biased responses probably because of job protection, company's name and image protection, personal reluctance, unnecessary fear of legal implications and so forth. All these created room for data constraint. However the researcher was poised to make the research most reliable and valid.

### **3.11 Ethical Consideration**

According to Polonsky & Waller (2005), the researcher understood the basics of ethical research and how it would have affected the study. Hence, in accordance with

this, as part of Moi University requirements the researcher presented an introductory letter which guaranteed confidentiality and assurance that the study was for academic purposes only. Respondent's identity was not revealed and the respondents were not obliged to participate in the study. They did it on a voluntary basis of free consent. Names and personal identification numbers were not reflected in the survey questionnaire.

All respondents were treated with utmost respect and equality by both the researcher and research assistants. The respondents were also given an opportunity to ask questions before, during and at the end of the study. The researcher also obtained an authorization letter and research permit from National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI), an authorization letter from the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology State department of Education (Coast Region), and a letter from the ministry of interior and coordination of national Government (County Commissioners office) which were shown to the respondents while collecting data.

There was no harm to the respondents because the study was not practical in nature. To avoid deception, the researcher and research assistants identified themselves with the respondents by sharing their contact details in case of any queries.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION

#### 4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis of the data collected using the tools discussed in the previous chapter. The main focus is on the analysis, interpretation and discussion of the study findings. The variables involved were derived from the study model. It involves response rate, demographic characteristics for the respondents and presentation of descriptive and inferential statistical results.

#### 4.1 Response Rate and Non Response

The data contained responses from authorized sales agents working in all insurance companies with branches in Mombasa Kenya. A total of 500 Self-administered questionnaires were distributed to the respondents in the months of April and May 2017 out of which, 460 were returned indicating a response rate of 92%. However only 448 questionnaires were used as 12 of them were not properly filled, hence excluded from the final tally. This response rate therefore shows a good representation of the study population as it was above the adequate 50% (Mendenhall *et al.*, 2003). Insurance sales agents were used as the unit of analysis. Some of the respondents that did not return the questionnaires gave various reasons such as lack of time to fill them, fear of revealing too much information which was against company policy and misplacement. Beullens *et al.*, (2018) argues that, for a social study, responses bearing over 60% response rate are sufficient for making adequate research conclusions. The researcher therefore considered that the 92% response rate was adequate since it was above 60%, and that this would provide sufficient information for analysis and drawing of conclusions of the study would be satisfactory.

## **4.2 Data Preparation and Screening**

Screening, editing and readiness of initial data are basic research steps conducted before further multivariate analysis. These steps help the researcher to identify any potential infringement on the research presumptions (Hair *et al.*, 2010). The survey data was screened for a number of potential problems in relation to missing data according to guidelines provided by Tabachnick & Fidell (2013). On receipt of any completed questionnaires, they were prepared for further screening by numbering them to ensure that each and every questionnaire was accounted for. Questionnaires that had been left blank and had large missing data were discarded and were not included in the analysis.

### **4.2.1 Missing Data Analysis**

One relevant problem in data quality is the presence of missing data. Studies have shown that missing values are a common occurrence in social research (Hayes, 2012). Missing values can seriously affect results of statistical analysis. Missing data may have different sources such as death of respondents, refusal of respondents to answer certain questions, and so on. In addition, a significant fraction of data can be erroneous (Gustavo *et al.*, 2002.). Data cleaning was done to detect and correct inaccurate and incomplete records from the database. In order to counter standard errors due to reduced sample size, and following suggestions by Comfrey & Lee (1992) that a sample size of 50-100 is considered very poor; 100-200 very poor; 300-400 good; 400-500 very good, and over 1000-excellent, hence a large sample was reasonable for accurate interpretation of the results. Each questionnaire was personally delivered to the insurance sales agents and a clear record maintained. A date and time to return and collect the filled questionnaire was agreed upon. To ensure that the questionnaires were filled, a follow up phone call was made prior to the

collection visit. In cases where the questionnaires had not been filled upon the commencement of the agreed date, a second date was scheduled. Personalized thank you messages were delivered to the respondents upon collection of the filled questionnaires. Missing values were evaluated with respect to cases and their distribution as shown in table 4.1. Most cases were complete and had non-missing values and this was enhanced through personal appearances, incentives and personalization (Kaplowitz *et al.*, 2004).

**Table 4.1: Distribution on the number of Missing Values and cases**

No of Missing Values	Number of cases	Percentage
0	448	92%
1	12	8%
<b>Total</b>	<b>460</b>	<b>100%</b>

Source: Research Data, (2017)

#### 4.2.2 Analysis of Outliers

The study variables were screened for presence of item outliers. An outlier is a point that is far from observing other observations. They may be due to variation in the measurement and can perhaps show an experimental error (Churchill *et al.*, 2004). The latter can sometimes be excluded from the data set. In any random distribution, there is a tendency of outliers but they are often indicative either of measurement error or that the population suffers hard-tail distribution. Scrutinizing outliers is an important step before analysis because skipping initial examination of outliers can distort statistical tests if there happens to be problematic outliers (Hair *et al.*, 2010). In particular, it distorts statistics and may lead to results that do not generalize to certain sample except one with the same type of outliers (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Outliers could have rendered data non-normal, yet normality was one of the assumptions of the study. Univariate outlier values were identified using boxplots and



extreme value tabulation using SPSS. These simple outliers were transformed by allocating and changing their values to the next highest or lowest non outlier item number.

Thereafter, all the dimensions of the variables used in the study were subjected to a multivariate outlier screening using standardized residuals and Mahalanobis distance test ( $\alpha=0.001$ ) and the results showed that there were no outliers.

### **4.3 Respondents' Demographic Information**

This section discusses the demographic characteristics of the respondents in the study area. This information is very important as it provides a foundation for further analysis of the specific research objectives and their findings using descriptive statistics, frequency tables and percentages. Demographic analysis is vital as it affects the socio-economic behavior of the population. The rationale behind this is to understand both the profile of the customers as well as that of their potential future prospects. This helps in shedding the light on the nature and caliber of the respondents from which interpretation would be justifiably made. An examination of the questionnaire responses for each of the 448 respondents pertains to gender; age, Tenure, working period within the insurance industry and education.

**Table 4.2: Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents**

N=448

<b>Demographic factor</b>		<b>Number of respondents</b>	<b>Percentage number of respondents</b>
Gender:	Male	241	53.80
	Female	207	46.20
		<b>448</b>	<b>100</b>
Age:	18-25	147	32.80
	26-33	136	30.40
	34-41	95	21.20
	42-49	55	12.30
	Above 50	15	3.30
			<b>448</b>
Working experience:	1-5 years	269	60.00
	6-10 years	88	19.60
	11-15 years	50	11.20
	16-20 years	24	5.40
	Above 21 years	17	3.80
			<b>448</b>
Working within the sector:	1-5 years	310	69.20
	6-10 years	74	16.50
	11-15 years	38	8.50
	16-20 years	17	3.80
	Above 21 years	9	2.00
			<b>448</b>
Education:	Secondary	48	10.70
	Professional cert	144	32.10
	Diploma	136	30.40
	First Degree	113	25.20
	Post graduate degree	7	1.60
			<b>448</b>

Source: Research data (2017)

The findings on table 4.2 established that Male respondents were the majority as they represented a 53.80%, (n=241) response rate compared to females, with a 46.20%, (n=207), hence the results of the study was gender sensitive as almost equal number of respondents from the two genders were involved in the study. Most respondents were of ages 18-25 years with a 32.80%, (n=147) which was followed by those ageing between 26 - 33 years with 30.40%, (n=136). Those whose ages ranged from 34-41 years were 21.20%, (n=95) and 42-49 years were 12.30%, (n=55) respectively. Lastly those above 50 years with a 3.30%, (n=15). This study therefore showed that majority of respondents were of young age between 18-33 years old.

On work experience, most of the respondents had worked between 1-5 years with 60.00%, (n=269), followed by those with 6-10 years representing a 19.60%, (n=88). Respondents with working experience of between 11-15 years were 11.20%, (n=50) and 5.40%, (n=24) had working experience of 16-20 years and lastly those whose work experience of more than 21 years were only represented by 3.80% (n=17). Most of the respondents had worked in the insurance sector between 1-5 years with a 69.20%, (n=310), who were followed by 16.50%, (n=74) of respondents who have worked in the industry for 6-10 years. The findings further revealed that those who had worked for 11-15 years were 8.50%, (n=38), 16-20 years, 3.80%, (n=17) and lastly those who had worked in the insurance sector were represented by only 2.00%, (n=9). These findings showed that majority of respondents had a vast knowledge in this sector.

On education levels, the study showed that majority of the respondents had a professional certificate with a 32.10 %, (n=144). This was followed by diploma holders with a 30.40%, (n=96). Respondents with a diploma or advanced diploma holders represented 24.60%, (n=136). The findings also showed that 25.20%, (n=113)

of respondents had attained a first degree and only 1.60%, (n=7) had attained a Post graduate degree. This indicated that majority of the respondents were learned and were able to understand the questionnaire without any problem.

#### 4.4 Categorical Results

This was performed by the use of a one way ANOVA to see whether any difference exists between the groups on the variables in the study.

**Table 4.3: ANOVA Test for Gender and Age**

Variables	Gender		Age	
	F	sig	F	sig
Sales Performance	0.95	0.33	0.97	0.43
Self-Efficacy	0.00	0.97	1.62	0.17
Locus of control	2.07	0.15	4.00	0.00
Proactive personalities	0.76	0.38	3.50	0.01
Goal commitment	3.30	0.07	2.58	0.04
Feedback seeking	0.69	0.40	1.95	0.10

Source: Research data, (2017)

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to determine if gender and Age response and opinion concerning the variables in the study was different. The finding on table 4.3 show that in terms of gender, there was no much significant difference in terms of their responses pertaining to the variables between the groups as determined by one-way ANOVA. The table also indicates that Age produced mixed results. Responses on sales performance, self-efficacy and feedback seeking behavior had a similar opinion in terms of the age as there was no significant difference in their response. On the other hand, results shows that respondents age statistically shows significant difference in responses and opinions pertaining to Locus of control, Proactive personalities and Goal commitment with F-4.00, 3.50 and 2.58 ( $p=0.00$ , 0.01 and 0.04) respectively.

The significance difference related to age and Locus of control is supported by Bradley and Webb (1976) who argues that this is consistent with the realities regarding changes in ability and opportunity for reinforcement which characterizes the elderly than the youth and it is important given that Locus of control is strongly related to life adjustment as a person ages. We can therefore conclude that an individual's perception of where control lies can have an impact on their viewpoint and the way they interact with environment.

Age and Proactive personality results are in line with prior studies in research field. Individuals with high levels of proactive personalities take action to influence their environments or identify opportunities and act on them, show initiative, take action, and persevere until meaningful change occurs (Crant, 2000). According to Bertolino *et al.*, (2015), behavioral expressions of proactivity constitute proactive behaviors, such as personal initiative, taking charge, expressing voice, and job crafting which might be the reason for the significance differences in the responses of this study.

Lastly the responses of age in relation to goal commitment is supported by Heidemeier & Staudinger (2015), whose study provided evidence that age-related changes in the motivational themes, such as achievement and growth, can be compensated for by older workers' to produce more positive work attitudes. Moreover, it was concluded in their study that intrinsic motivation and emotionally meaningful goals become more important with age hence relevance for managing highly skilled workers.

**Table 4.4: ANOVA Test for Working Experience and Tenure**

Variables	Working experience		Tenure	
	F	sig	F	sig
Sales Performance	4.99	0.00	4.91	0.00
Self-Efficacy	1.90	0.11	0.90	0.46
Locus of control	5.26	0.00	5.43	0.00
Proactive personalities	4.01	0.00	1.91	0.11
Goal commitment	1.50	0.20	0.78	0.54
Feedback seeking	3.18	0.01	2.95	0.02

Source: Research data, (2017)

Table 4.4 shows categorical results of a one-way ANOVA which was conducted to determine the response and opinion of respondents on working duration and the period one has worked in the sector concerning the variables in the study. The table shows mixed results as responses on self-efficacy and goal commitment had a similar opinion in terms of working experience as there was no significant difference in their response. The finding also reveal that in terms of working experience , there was a statistically significant difference in terms of their responses pertaining to Sales performance, locus of control, and feedback seeking behavior with  $F=4.99$ ,  $5.26$ ,  $4.01$  and  $3.18$  ( $p=0.00$ ,  $0.00$ ,  $0.00$  and  $0.01$ ) respectively between the groups as determined by one-way ANOVA.

Different responses in relation to working experience and sales performance is supported by prior studies like Wang (2000) who states that experienced salespeople have been suggested to have a better understanding of their jobs, customers, and company policies. It is also believed that work experience leads to higher levels of sales-related knowledge and skills that has been found to influence a number of

important variables such as motivation, job skills, role perceptions, customer orientation, and finally, performance (Bartkus *et al.*, 1989; O'Hara *et al.*, 1991)

Table 4.4 shows difference in responses concerning working experience and locus of control. This finding is in line with Arvind Hans *et al.*, (2014) study on locus of control and teacher's job satisfaction. Their findings shows that as the years of experience increased among teachers from 11-20 years the individual locus of control also increased. This implies that people with different working experience have different opinions on locus of control.

Lastly, the different opinions of respondents on working experience and feedback seeking behavior is supported by Susan and Cummings (1985). The authors argue that feedback is a valuable resource that employees, under many conditions, seek out within the work environment as it allows them more ably to achieve highly valued goals. Their study, suggest that relatively young, job-involved individuals, do seek more feedback from their work environments than their older (and frequently higher level) colleagues. This seeking may be viewed as exhibiting impatience, at best, or disrespect and immaturity at worst.

Analysis relating to tenure and the respondents shows that there is no statistical significant differences in response regarding tenure and self-efficacy, proactive personalities and goal commitment as respondents had the same opinion. The finding on table 4.3 however also indicates significant differences in response pertaining to tenure and sales performance, locus of control and feedback seeking behavior with  $F=4.91, 5.43$  and  $2.95$  ( $p=0.00, 0.00$  and  $0.02$ ) respectively.

The difference in opinion concerning tenure and sales performance is in line with Banjo & Olufemi, (2014). Their study on demographic variables and job performance

reveals that the more the salesmen stay on their current jobs as salesperson, the more their performance is realized. New employees often require new or additional training to learn skill specific to the job. This therefore goes to show that people who have stayed long on their current job are not likely to make mistakes like new employees on the job, hence perform better (Obikoya, 2002).

The effect of tenure on locus of control produced different opinions from the respondents. This is in line with Nasima *et al.*, (2006), who states that the extrinsic job satisfaction of an individual is influenced by the length of service in an organization. Hulin & Smith (1964), showed an increase in job satisfaction with length of service one has been in an organization, whereas, Hunt and Saul (1975), showed a decrease in job satisfaction with increase in tenure. Oshagbemi's (2000) study revealed that persons who remained at an organization for long experienced job satisfaction than those who job hopped. In conclusion, it is evident from prior studies, that the levels of job satisfaction of people who remain at one organization are higher than those people who change organizations frequently.

The value of feedback seeking behavior appears to be viewed differently at different states of an individual's tenure within an organization. This is in line with Susan (1986), who asserts that feedback seeking behavior seems to be a resource, useful in adapting to a new environment defined by a particular job. As individuals gain tenure in a job, they perceive feedback less valuable. The author suggests that individuals see feedback as valuable in mastering sub environments defined by particular jobs, regardless of whether those jobs are their first or are later in their organizational tenures. As sub environments become known and predictable, however, individuals value feedback less. The perceived value of feedback thus can be presumed to



fluctuate as individuals move from job to job within an organization rather than to decrease monotonically as a function of organizational tenure.

**Table 4.5: Categorical Results for Education**

Variables	Education	
	F	Sig.
Sales Performance	2.20	0.07
Self-Efficacy	1.27	0.28
Locus of control	1.89	0.11
Proactive personalities	0.25	0.91
Goal commitment	0.61	0.65
Feedback seeking	1.50	0.20

Source: Research data, (2017)

Table 4.5 shows a one-way ANOVA results which was conducted to determine if education of the respondents concerning the variables in the study was different. The finding show that in terms of education, there was no much statistical significant difference in their responses pertaining to the variables between the groups as determined by one-way ANOVA as all the p-value of the variables was greater than 0.05.

#### **4.5 Scale Reliability of the Instruments**

According Bryman & Bell (2007) reliability is whether the concept and the result are reliable and if the study can be replicated with the same result. The study employed measures from already tested constructs but it was necessary to carry out an individual test to examine if all items measure the same concept, then we would expect them all to correlate well together. Any items that have consistently low correlations across the board may need to be removed from the questionnaire to make it more reliable. At the same time, the individual items Cronbach's alpha was

considered to determine which item can be deleted to improve the reliability of the questionnaire. Nunnally (1978) suggests that a Cronbach alpha greater than 0.90 indicates high reliability, 0.70 medium reliability, less than 0.50 reveals low reliability and thus the item should be rejected.

#### 4.5.1 Reliability Test for Individual Items of Sales Performance:

Table 4.6 (a) shows the overall Cronbach's *Alpha* for the 7 items as 0.83 which is at the acceptable range. Table 4.6(b) guides us to decide whether any items need to be removed. There are two columns of interest here. The *Corrected Item - Total Correlation* column reveals how much each item correlates with the overall questionnaire score. Correlations less than  $r = 0.30$  indicate that the item may not belong on the scale. From table 4.6(b) there is no item that looks problematic considering this criterion.

Secondly, the final column in the table 4.6(b) *Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted* gives us the Cronbach's alpha score the researcher would get if each item is removed from the questionnaire. Remember, our current score is  $\alpha = 0.83$ . If this score goes down if we deleted an item, we want to keep it. But if this score goes up after the item is deleted, we might want to delete it as it would make our questionnaire more reliable. In this case, all the items should be retained since all of them have score less than 0.83 and at the accepted range.

**Table 4.6(a): Sales performance overall Reliability statistics**

Cronbach's Alpha	Number of items
0.83	7

Source: Research data, (2017)

**Table 4.6(b) Sales performance Item-Total statistics for the items**

Items	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Rating of quantity of work achieved	23.50	13.59	0.62	0.79
Rating of quality of performance in regard to customer relations	23.06	14.39	0.55	0.81
Rating of quality of performance in regard to knowledge of products	23.11	14.14	0.60	0.80
Rating of performance in sales presentation effectiveness	23.14	14.45	0.54	0.81
Knowledge of competitors products	23.30	14.30	0.49	0.82
Quality of performance in regard to customer needs	23.08	14.03	0.59	0.80
Time taken to close a deal	23.40	13.56	0.59	0.80

Source: Research data, (2017)

#### **4.5.2 Reliability test for Individual items of Self-Efficacy**

A reliability analysis was carried out on Self-efficacy values scale comprising 7 items. Cronbach's alpha showed the questionnaire to reach acceptable reliability,  $\alpha = 0.84$ . Most items appeared to be worthy of retention, resulting in a decrease in the alpha if deleted. The one exception to this was item 1, which would increase the alpha to  $\alpha = 0.84$ . As such, removal of this item should be considered as also the *Corrected Item - Total Correlation* column reveals how much each item correlates with the overall questionnaire score. In this case question 1 correlates .50 (least) to the overall questionnaire score.

**Table 4.7(a): Self-efficacy overall Reliability Statistics**

Cronbach's Alpha	Number of items
0.84	7

Source: Research data, (2017)

**Table 4.7(b) Self-Efficacy Item-Total Statistics for the Items**

Items	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
I know the right thing to do in selling situations	25.75	13.42	0.50	0.84
Overall I am confident of my ability to perform job well	25.49	12.95	0.59	0.82
I feel I am very capable at the task of selling	25.58	12.64	0.65	0.82
I feel I have capabilities to successfully perform this job	25.44	13.09	0.64	0.82
Compared to other people I can do most tasks very well	25.80	12.20	0.62	0.82
I always perform effectively on many different tasks	25.88	12.00	0.63	0.82
When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them	25.72	12.53	0.59	0.82

Source: Research data, (2017)

#### 4.5.3 Reliability Results for Individual Items of Locus of Control

A reliability analysis test carried out on Locus of control values scale comprising of 7 items produced Cronbach's alpha,  $\alpha = 0.52$  (Table 4.8(a)). Table 4.8(b) guides us to decide whether any items need to be removed. The *Corrected Item - Total Correlation* column reveals how much each item correlates with the overall questionnaire score. Correlations less than  $r = 0.30$  indicate that the item may not belong on the scale. From table 4.8(b), items 1, 2, 3 and 4 look problematic considering this criterion. As such, removal of these items should be considered.

This is also proved by results on the same table, column of *Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted* which gives us the Cronbach's alpha score we would get if this item is

removed from the questionnaire. Our current score is  $\alpha = 0.52$ . For this score to remain or improve, the items 1, 2, 3, and 4 should be deleted, to make our questionnaire more reliable and improve the *Cronbach's Alpha* of the questionnaire. On the other hand items 5, 6, and 7 should be retained.

**Table 4.8(a): Locus of control overall Reliability Statistics**

Cronbach's Alpha	Number of items
0.52	7

Source: Research data, (2017)

**Table 4.8(b): Locus of control Item-Total Statistics for the Items**

Items	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
I can solely overcome the obstacles on sales work	19.82	14.48	0.20	0.51
I should be responsible for the failure of not reaching the sales quota	19.92	14.26	0.19	0.52
My behavior can greatly influence my selling outcome	19.50	14.54	0.25	0.49
Sales performance is strongly related to the efforts I have made	19.51	14.38	0.26	0.49
I believe that making money is a matter of good fortune	21.15	11.96	0.28	0.48
I hold this position because of the connections I have	21.58	11.31	0.40	0.41
I will get promoted because of luck	22.05	13.37	0.25	0.49

Source: Research data, (2017)

#### 4.5.4 Reliability for Individual Items of Proactive Personalities

Table 4.9 (a) shows the overall Cronbach's *Alpha* for the 7 items as 0.78 which is at the acceptable range. Table 4.9(b) guides us to decide whether any items need to be

removed. The *Corrected Item - Total Correlation* column reveals how much each item correlates with the overall questionnaire score. Correlations less than  $r = 0.30$  indicate that the item does not belong on the scale. From table 4.9(b) there is no item that looks problematic considering this criterion. *Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted* column which gives us the Cronbach's alpha score that we would get if each item is removed from the questionnaire shows that all the items should be retained since all of them have score less than 0.78 and at the accepted range.

**Table 4.9(a): Proactive Personalities overall Reliability statistics**

Cronbach's Alpha	Number of items
0.78	7

Source: Research data, (2017)

**Table 4.9(b): Proactive Personalities Item-Total statistics for the items**

Items	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
I am always fixing what is wrong	25.83	12.51	0.43	0.78
I am very reliable to my customers	25.09	13.75	0.56	0.74
I always solve customers' problems	25.27	13.49	0.56	0.74
If I believe in an idea, no obstacle will prevent me from making it happen	25.17	13.88	0.46	0.77
No matter what odds. I believe in something I will make happen	25.03	13.91	0.54	0.74
I love being a champion for my ideas	25.25	13.20	0.52	0.74
I excel at identifying opportunities	25.23	13.83	0.52	0.75

Source: Research data, (2017)

#### 4.5.5 Reliability Results for Individual Items of Goal Commitment

A reliability test carried out on Goal commitment scale comprising of 7 items produced Cronbach's alpha,  $\alpha = 0.34$  which is below the recommended threshold (Table 4.10a). Table 4.10(b) helps us to decide which items need to be removed to improve the score. The *Corrected Item - Total Correlation* column reveals how much each item correlates with the overall questionnaire score. Looking at table 4.10(b) items 4, 5, 6 and 7 look problematic considering the standard set criterion. As such, removal of these items should be considered.

**Table 4.10(a): Goal commitment overall Reliability Statistics**

Cronbach's Alpha	Number of items
0.34	7

Source: Research data, (2017)

This is also evident from the results shown on the same table, column of *Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted* which gives us the Cronbach's alpha score we would get if this item is removed from the questionnaire. Our current score is  $\alpha = 0.34$ . For this score to improve, the items 4, 5, and 7 should be deleted, to make our questionnaire more reliable and improve the *Cronbach's Alpha* of the questionnaire. On the other hand items 1, 2, 3 and 6 should be retained.

**Table 4.10(b): Goal commitment Item-Total Statistics for the Items**

Items	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
I am strongly committed to pursuing my goal	22.71	8.43	0.20	0.29
I think a goal is good to shoot for	22.80	8.07	0.31	0.25
I am willing to put forth a great deal of effort	22.79	8.09	0.27	0.26
It wouldn't take me much to abandon my goal	24.72	7.43	0.04	0.40
It is hard to take a goal seriously	25.17	7.71	0.04	0.40
There is much to be gained by trying to achieve a goal	22.99	7.68	0.22	0.27
No situation will stop me from pursuing this goal	22.87	8.20	0.17	0.30

Source: Research data, (2017)

#### 4.5.6 Feedback Seeking Behavior Reliability Test for Individual items

Table 4.11(a) shows results for reliability analysis carried out on Feedback seeking behavior scale comprising of 7 items. The Cronbach's alpha shows the questionnaire reached the acceptable reliability,  $\alpha = 0.64$ . Table 4.11(b), shows most items appeared to be worthy of retention, resulting in a decrease in the alpha if deleted. The one exception to this was item 3, which would increase the alpha to  $\alpha = 0.72$  if deleted. As such, removal of this item should be considered as also the *Corrected Item - Total Correlation* column reveals how much the item correlates with the overall questionnaire score. In this case question 3 correlates 0.03 (least) to the overall questionnaire score.



**Table 4.11 (a): Feedback Seeking Behavior Overall Reliability statistics**

Cronbach's Alpha	Number of items
0.64	7

Source: Research data, (2017)

**Table 4.11(b): Feedback Seeking Behavior Item-Total statistics for the items**

Items	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
I prefer to be told my overall work performance	22.40	16.42	0.45	0.57
I prefer to be told how to improve my performance	22.19	17.40	0.42	0.59
I prefer not to be told how well I am doing my job in general	24.17	19.08	0.03	0.70
It is important to know how my job performance compares to that of co-works	22.52	17.23	0.35	0.60
I seek information from the co- workers about my work performance	23.15	15.67	0.44	0.57
I seek feedback from my supervisor about potential for advancement with company	22.64	16.21	0.47	0.57
My supervisor's evaluation of my performance is important	22.70	15.10	0.43	0.57

Source: Research data, (2017)

## 4.6 Factor Analysis

Before conducting the regression analysis and to test the hypotheses, factor analysis was performed on each variable using extraction method of principle component analysis. The reason for factor analysis is to identify a small number of items which can be used to test relationship among interrelated variables, and also to investigate the validity of each construct through measurement purification process, items with factor loadings less than 0.50 were omitted from the analyses to increase construct validity (Kim *et al.*, 2006). Construct validity measures the degree to which a scale measures what it intends to measure and it is assessed by factor analysis in this research study.

### 4.6.1 Factor analysis for the Variables

To examine construct validity, 42 items were examined by principal component extraction with Varimax rotation. The Kaiser-Meyer–Olkin (KMO) had a measure of 0.86 (**Table 4.12a**) which is above the threshold of 0.50 (Fisher, 2005). The Bartlett's test was significant in this study with a chi-square of 3786.21 ( $p$ -value < 0.001). Therefore, with KMO value of 0.86 and significance of Bartlett's statistic confirm the appropriateness of the factor analysis for the data set.

**Table 4.12(b)** shows the factor loading for each item for all the variables (Sales performance (dependent variable), Salesforce Personality traits of Self-Efficacy, Locus of control and Proactive personalities (independent variable), Goal commitment (Mediator) and Feedback seeking behavior (moderator) all are sorted by size. Any item that fails to meet the criteria of having a factor loading value of greater than 0.50 and does not load on only one factor was dropped from the study. The table shows that only 28 items were sorted and clustered into six components as 14 items were dropped: Factor 1 (Sales Performance) with 7 items; Factor 2 (Self-Efficacy)

with 6 items, Factor 3 (Feedback seeking information- Moderator) with 6 items, Factor 4 (Locus of control) with 3 items, Factor 5 (Goal commitment- Mediator) with 3 items and Factor 6 (Proactive) also with 3 factors.

The eigen value for each factor is greater than 1.0 (3.63, 3.35, 2.57, 2.00, 1.92 and 1.72) which implies that each factor can explain more variance than a single variable. The cumulative percentage of variance explained by the six factors is 54.26 per cent. In other words, more than 54% per cent of the common variance shared by the 28 items can be accounted or explained by these six factors. Based on these results, the construct validity is established.

**Table 4.12 (a) KMO and Bartlett's Test**

Component	Rotation Sums Squared		Loadings	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy	.86		
	Total Eigen Values	(initial % of Variance)				Cumulative percentage	Approx. Chi-Square
1	3.63	12.96	12.96	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity df	378		
2	3.35	11.97	24.93				
3	2.57	9.19	34.16				
4	2.00	7.15	41.27			sig	.00
5	1.92	6.85	48.12				
6	1.72	6.14	54.26				

Source: Research data (2017)

**Table 4.12 (b): Summary of the Principal component analyses for the variables**

Scale items (N=448)	Sales perform	Self -Eff	Feedback seeking	Locus of control	Goal commt	Proactive
Rating of quantity of work achieved	0.73					
Time taken to close a deal	0.72					
Rating of quality of performance in regard to knowledge of products	0.70					
Rating of quality of performance in regard to customer relations	0.64					
Quality of performance in regard to customer needs	0.64					
Rating of performance in sales presentation effectiveness	0.62					
Knowledge of competitors products	0.61					
I feel I have capabilities to successfully perform this job		0.77				
I feel I am very capable at the task of selling		0.75				
Overall I am confident of my ability to perform job well		0.70				
Compared to other people I can do most tasks very well		0.64				
I always perform effectively on many different tasks		0.67				
When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them		0.63				
I seek information from the co-workers about my work performance			0.68			
I prefer to be told my overall work performance			0.67			
I seek feedback from my supervisor about potential for advancement with company			0.65			
I prefer to be told how to improve my performance			0.63			
My supervisor's evaluation of my performance is important			0.62			
It is important to know how my job performance compares to that of co-works			0.52			
I will get promoted because of luck				0.82		
I hold this position because of the connections I have				0.81		
I belief that making money is a matter of good fortune				0.77		
I think a goal is good to shoot for					0.77	
I am strongly committed to pursuing my goal					0.75	
I am willing to put forth a great deal of effort					0.66	
I love being a champion for my ideas						0.67
If I believe in an idea, no obstacle will prevent me from making it happen						0.66
I always solve customers' problems						0.57

Source: Research data (2017)

#### 4.7 Reliability Test after Factor analysis

After deleting all items that are not consistent with the scale through component factor analysis, it was prudent to carry out reliability test again for all the remaining variables. Table 4.13 shows the composite results of the study with Cronbach's alpha in all the remaining 28 items indicating higher than 0.50 and overall reliability of items being 0.82 the questionnaire is acceptable for the study.

**Table 4.13: Composite Reliability Results for the Constructs**

Construct	Number of items	Cronbach's alpha
Sales performance	7	0.83
Self- Efficacy	6	0.84
Locus of control	3	0.73
Proactive personalities	3	0.58
Goal commitment	3	0.69
Feedback Seeking	6	0.72
<b>Overall items and their Reliability</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>0.82</b>

Source: Research Data, (2017)

#### 4.8 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics analysis was performed on all variables after factor analysis on the remaining items namely; Sales performance as the dependent variable, Self-Efficacy, Locus of control and Proactive personalities as independent variables, Feedback seeking behavior as a moderating variable and Goal commitment as a mediating variable. The descriptive analyses include means and standard deviations.

##### 4.8.1 Descriptive Statistics for Sales Performance

This variable was measured using seven questions, each of which captured on a likert scale. Findings of the analysis as illustrated in table 4.14 confirms that, most

respondents had the same opinion that rating of quality on performance regarding to customer relations had a highest mean of 4.03 with a std. deviation of 0.84 which was followed by item on “quality of performance in regard to customer needs” which scored a mean of 4.02 and a std. deviation of 0.86. Rating of quality of performance in regard to product knowledge scored a mean of 3.99 with a std. deviation of 0.82 and sales presentation effectiveness had a mean of 3.96 with a std. deviation of 0.84, while respondents’ knowledge of competitor’s products scored a mean of 3.80 with 0.93 std. deviation. Time taken to close a deal had the second lowest a mean of 3.69 with a std. deviation of 0.95 and rating of quality work achieved item had the least mean of 3.60 and a std. deviation of 0.92.

**Table 4.14: Mean and Standard Deviation for Sales Performance**

<b>Sales performance</b>	Mean	Std. dvn
Rating of quality of performance in regard to customer relations	4.03	0.84
Quality of performance in regard to customer needs	4.02	0.86
Rating of quality of performance in regard to knowledge of products	3.99	0.82
Rating of performance in sales presentation effectiveness	3.96	0.84
Knowledge of competitors products	3.80	0.93
Time taken to close a deal	3.69	0.95
Rating of quantity of work achieved	3.60	0.92

Source: Survey data (2017).

#### **4.8.2 Descriptive Statistics for Self-Efficacy**

Self-Efficacy was the second independent variable which was measured using six questions, each of which was captured on a likert scale. From the results on table 4.15, the item which scored the highest mean of 4.50 and a std. deviation of 0.71 was

the capabilities to successfully perform one's job, followed by the Overall confidence of an individual's ability to perform his/her job well with a mean of 4.46 and std. deviation of 0.78. The feeling of having capabilities concerning the task of selling had a mean of 4.37 with a std. deviation of 0.78, while the item "When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them, scored a mean of 4.22 with a std. deviation of 0.86. Comparison to other people the respondent can do most tasks very well had a mean of 4.14 with a standard deviation of 0.89 and lastly the item on one's performance on multitasking effectively scoring the least mean of 4.06 with a std. deviation of 0.90.

**Table 4.15 Mean and Standard Deviation for Self-Efficacy**

<b>Self- Efficacy</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. deviation</b>
I feel I have capabilities to successfully perform this job	4.50	0.71
Overall I am confident of my ability to perform job well	4.46	0.78
I feel I am very capable at the task of selling	4.37	0.78
When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them	4.22	0.86
Compared to other people I can do most tasks very well	4.14	0.89
I always perform effectively on many different tasks	4.06	0.92

Source: Survey data (2017)

#### **4.8.3 Descriptive Statistics for Locus of Control**

Three questions were used to measure Locus of control as shown on Table 4.16. Most respondents' belief that making money is a matter of good fortune with a mean score of 2.77 and a standard deviation of 1.48. Staff holding positions because of connections they have item had a mean score of 2.34 and a standard deviation of 1.38.

Lastly getting promotions due to lack was seen to be insignificant to respondents as it scored a mean of 1.88 and a standard deviation of 1.20.

**Table 4.16: Mean and Standard Deviation for Locus of Control**

<b>Locus of control</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. deviation</b>
I belief that making money is a matter of good fortune	2.77	1.48
I hold this position because of the connections I have	2.34	1.38
I will get promoted because of luck	1.88	1.201

Source: Survey data (2017)

#### **4.8.4 Descriptive statistics for Proactive Personalities**

The findings in Table 4.17 revealed how Proactive personality's three items were measured. Most respondents agree that believe in pursuance of an idea gives them strength to move forward as no obstacle will prevent them from making it happen. This is evident from the table as this item scored the highest mean of 4.31 and a standard deviation of 0.89. The study also reveals that respondents love being champions of their ideas as this item scored a mean of 4.23 with a standard deviation of 0.95. The finding also shows that respondents are always ready to solve customers' problems with this item scored the least mean of 4.21 and a standard deviation of 0.86.

**Table 4.17: Mean and Standard Deviation for Proactive Personalities**

<b>Proactive personality items</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Dvn</b>
If I believe in an idea, no obstacle will prevent me from making it happen	4.31	0.89
I love being a champion for my ideas	4.23	0.95
I always solve customers' problems	4.21	0.86

Source: Survey data (2017)



#### 4.8.5 Descriptive Statistics for Goal Commitment

In Table 4.18 the study reveals that most respondents are strongly committed to pursuing their goal with a mean score of 4.64 and a standard deviation of 0.70. This item was followed by willingness to put forth a great deal of effort with a mean of 4.55 and a standard deviation of 0.73. Lastly, the item, “I think a goal is a good to shoot for”, scored a mean of 4.54 and standard deviation of 0.69. From the results we conclude that all the three items scored above the average mean of 1.50.

**Table 4.18 Mean and Standard Deviation for Goal Commitment**

<b>Goal commitment items</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
I am strongly committed to pursuing my goal	4.64	0.70
I am willing to put forth a great deal of effort	4.55	0.73
I think a goal is good to shoot for.	4.54	0.69

Source: survey data (2017)

#### 4.8.6 Descriptive Statistics for Feedback Seeking Behavior

In table 4.19, the research shows that most respondents prefer to be told how to improve their performance and also to be told on their overall performance of their job. This is evident from the results as these items scored the highest mean score of 4.44, 4.23 with standard deviations of 0.91, 1.07 respectively. Most respondents also prefer to know their job performance in comparison to their co-workers as this item scored a mean of 4.11 with a standard deviation of 1.07. It is also evident that most respondents seek feedback from their supervisors about their potential advancement with the company and the evaluation of their performance from their supervisors is important as these two items scored a mean of 3.99 and 3.93 with standard deviations of 1.08 and 1.36 respectively. Seeking information from co-workers about one’s work

performance was also agreed by most respondents as this item scored the mean scores of 3.47 and standard deviation of 1.23 as seen in the table.

**Table 4.19 Mean and Standard Deviation for Feedback Seeking Behavior**

Feedback seeking behavior items	Mean	Std dev
I prefer to be told how to improve my performance	4.44	0.91
I prefer to be told my overall work performance	4.23	1.07
It is important to know how my job performance compares to that of co-workers	4.11	1.07
I seek feedback from my supervisor about potential for advancement with company	3.99	1.08
My supervisor's evaluation of my performance is important	3.93	1.36
I seek information from the co-workers about my work performance	3.47	1.23

Source: Survey data (2017)

#### 4.9 Descriptive Statistics for the Constructs

A Single construct in the questionnaire was measured by multiple items, the average scores of the items for the construct was computed and used for further analysis like correlation and regression analysis. To construct the final data aggregated survey data set were merged basing on the means responses as presented in Table 4.20.

Table 4.20 describes the summary statistics for the sampled variables. Goal commitment showed the highest mean of (4.60) and a standard deviation of (0.56). This signifies that majority of the respondents have the same opinion concerning this variable in influencing Sales performance. Moreover, the study showed that the respondents also concur on the statements describing Self- efficacy and Proactive personalities with a mean of (4.30) each and a standard deviation of (0.61) and 0.66 respectively. This is therefore a clear indication that both variables have a great impact on Sales performance. This was followed by Feedback seeking behavior

construct with a mean of 4.00 and a standard deviation of 0.73 showing the power of Feedback seeking behavior on Sales performance. Respondents also agree with the statements on Sales performance with a mean of 3.90 and a standard deviation of 0.62, Locus of control statements scored a mean of 2.30 and a standard deviation of 1.09.

**Table 4.20: Summary of the Descriptive Statistics for the Constructs**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Standard deviation</b>
Sales performance	3.87	0.62
Self- Efficacy	4.29	0.62
Locus of control	2.33	1.09
Proactive personalities	4.25	0.66
Goal commitment	4.58	0.56
Feedback Seeking Behavior	4.03	0.73

Source: Survey data (2017)

#### **4.10 Data Transformation**

After component factor analysis, data was transformed using the remaining items that met the required threshold in research. Since a single construct in the questionnaire was measured by multiple items, the average score of the multi-items for a construct was computed and used in further analysis such as correlation analysis and multiple regression analysis (Doan et al., (2012). Sales performance which was the dependent variable had seven items (SP1, SP2, SP3, SP4, SP5, SP6 and SP7). Self-efficacy (independent variable) had Six items (SE2, SE3, SE4, SE5, SE6 and SE7), Locus of control (independent variable) had three items (LC5, LC6 and LC7) and Proactive personalities (independent variable) had three items (PP3, PP4 and PP6). Goal commitment which was used in this study as a mediator had three items, (GC1, GC2 and GC3) and lastly Feedback seeking behavior, (the moderator) had six items (FSB1, FSB2, FSB4, FSB5, FSB6 and FSB7).

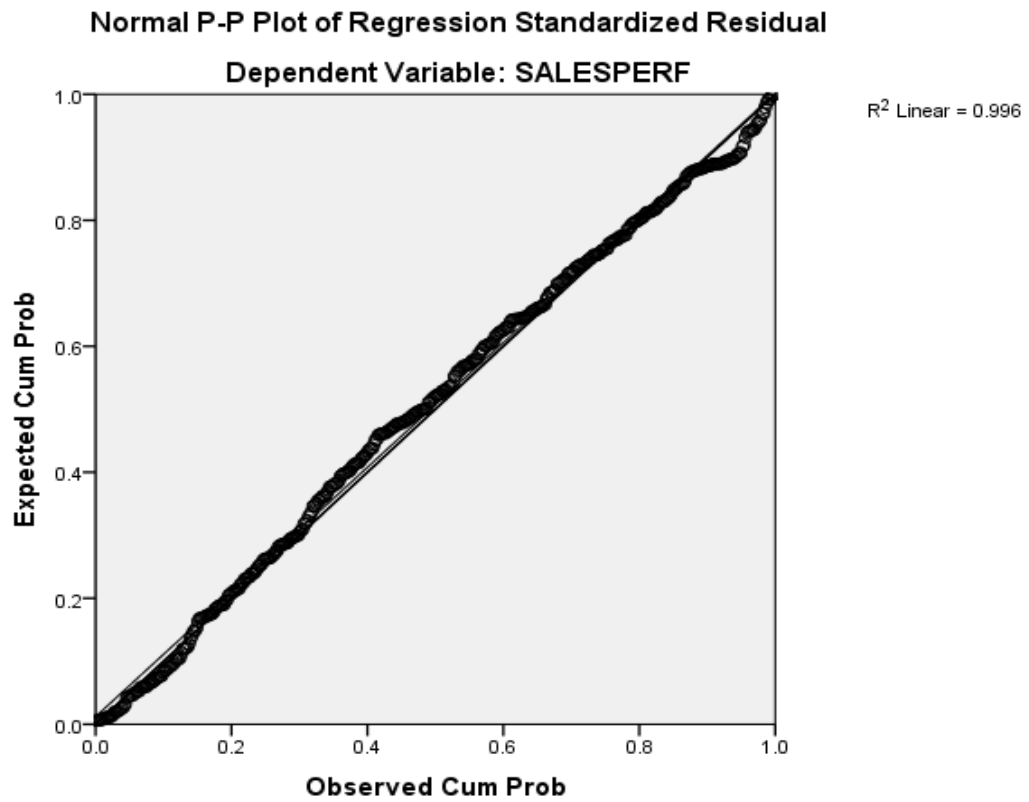
#### 4.11 Testing Assumptions of Regression Analysis

Regression assumes that variables have normal distributions. Non-normally distributed variables (highly skewed or Kurtotic variables, or variables with substantial outliers) can distort relationships and significance tests.

##### 4.11.1 Linearity and Normality Test

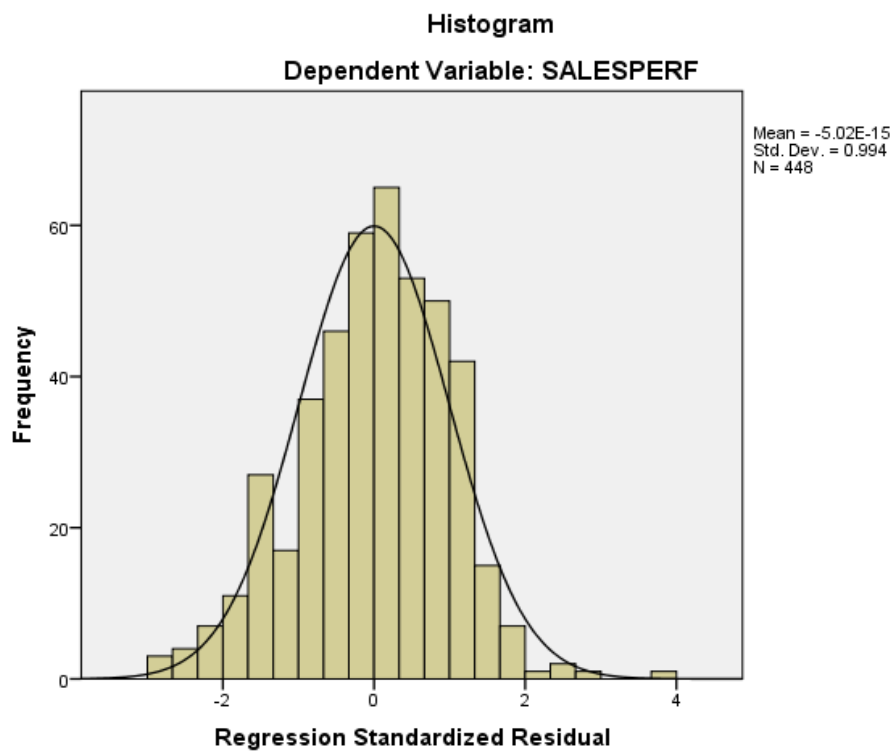
The figure (4.1) shows  $R^2$  Linear=0.996 implying that the assumption of linearity in the analyses has been fulfilled. The coefficient of determination is 0.996; therefore, means that about 99.60% of the variation in the Sales performance data is explained by independent, Mediating and moderating variables (Salesforce personality traits, Goal commitment and Feedback seeking behavior). The regression equation appears to be very useful for making predictions since the value of  $R^2$  is close to 1.

To test for Normality an inspection was done on the regression standardized residual histogram (Figure 4.2) which indicated that the data is normally distributed. In addition, the regression standardized residual (Figure 4.1) was also found to be normally distributed whereby the observed and expected values were found along the line, without any significant departures from it.



**Figure 4.1: Normality and Linearity Test**

Source: Research data (2017)



**Figure 4.2: Normality Test (Source: Research data, 2017)**

#### 4.11.2 The Assumption of Multicollinearity

This study used Variance inflation Factor (VIF) and tolerance to test for multicollinearity in the data. The rule of thumb is that  $VIF > 4.0$  and tolerance  $< 0.20$  indicates multicollinearity problem in the analysis. Since the tolerance value of all the variables is greater than .20 and the VIF is less than 4.0, it implies that there is no multicollinearity problem (Hair *et al.*, 2010).

**Table 4.21: Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) and Tolerance Table**

Predictor Variables	Unstdized Coeff		Stdized Coeff	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std Error				Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	0.90	0.26		3.43	0.00		
Self-Efficacy	0.39	0.05	0.38	7.95	0.00	0.67	1.49
Locus of control	-0.02	0.04	-0.01	-0.34	0.73	0.87	1.16
Proactive	0.28	0.05	0.28	5.61	0.00	0.61	1.63
Goal commitment	0.03	0.06	0.03	0.58	0.57	0.81	1.23
Feedback seeking	0.00	0.04	0.00	0.07	0.94	0.82	1.22

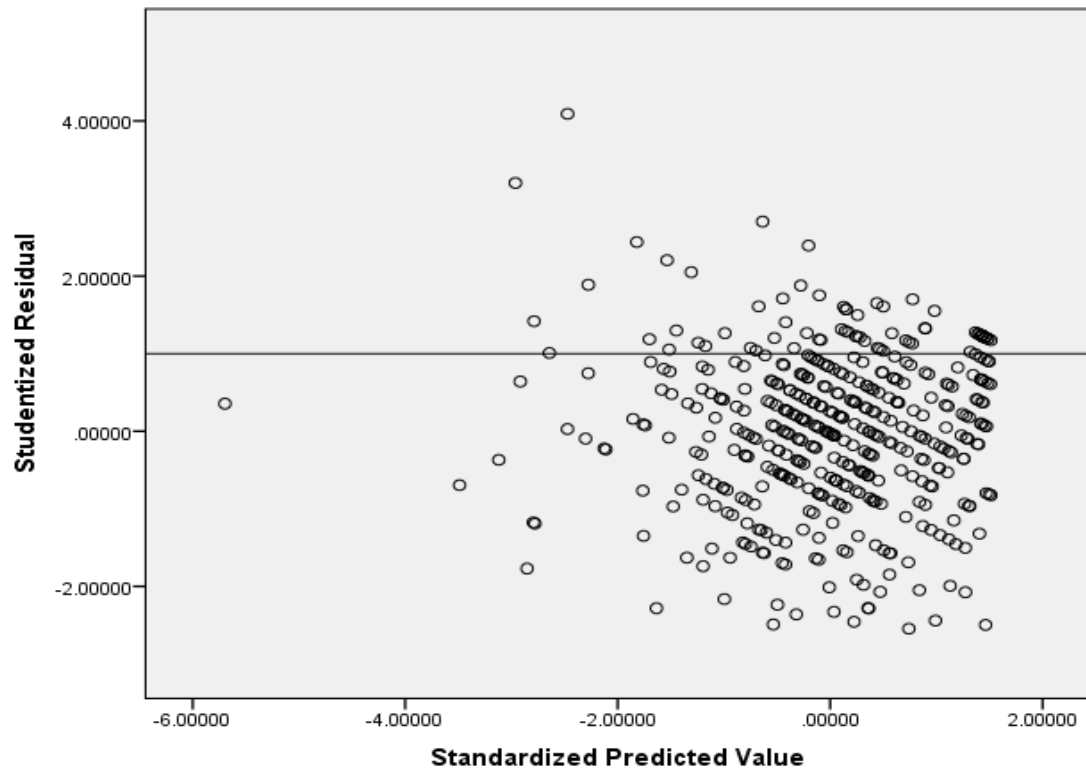
Dependent Variable: Sales Performance

Source: Research data (2017).

#### 4.11.3 Testing for Homoscedasticity

As indicated on residual scatter plot (Figure 4.3) the variance of residuals is considered to be same for all predicted value of dependent variable which provided support of homoscedasticity. The residuals are randomly scattered around 0 (the horizontal line) providing a relatively even distribution. Heteroscedasticity is indicated when the residuals are not evenly scattered around the line. According to Osborne and Waters (2002), residuals should lie between -2 and/or +2 points.

Therefore, the assumption of homoscedasticity in the analyses has been fulfilled in this study where all the residuals are within the recommended threshold.



**Figure 4.3: Homoscedasticity Test**

Source: Research data (2017).

#### 4.12 Correlation Analysis

Pearson correlation analysis is meant to examine the relationship between the variables (Jahangir & Begum, 2008). According to Wong & Hiew (2005) the correlation coefficient value ( $r$ ) that range from 0.10 to 0.29 is considered weak, any that lies between 0.30 to 0.49 is considered medium and from 0.50 to 1.0 is considered strong. However, according to Field (2005), correlation coefficient should not go beyond 0.80 to avoid multicollinearity.

Table 4.22 presents correlation results of all the variables in the study. The finding shows that all the associated pairs of Sales performance with all the variables were

significant at 0.01 levels. Based on the results, the correlation between Sales performance and Self-Efficacy was the strongest with  $r = 0.53$ ,  $p < 0.01$ . This was followed by the relationship between Sales Performance and Proactive personality,  $r = 0.49$ ,  $p < 0.01$ . The study further indicates that Sales performance relationship with Feedback seeking behavior, Goal commitment and Locus of control followed with  $r = 0.20$ ,  $0.19$  and  $0.19$  respectively with all having  $p < 0.01$ .

**Table 4.22: Correlation Analysis**

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Sales Performance	1					
2. Self-efficacy	0.53**	1				
3. Locus of control	0.19**	0.29**	1			
4. Proactive	0.49**	0.55**	0.31**	1		
5. Goal commitment	0.19**	0.21**	0.23**	0.33**	1	
6. Feedback seeking	0.20**	0.25**	0.15**	0.33**	0.35**	1

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2- tailed), Source: Research Data (2017).

#### 4.13 Hypotheses Testing

The aim of this study was to examine whether Goal commitment would mediate the relationship between Salesforce personality traits and Sales performance and to examine whether the indirect relationship between Salesforce personality traits through Goal commitment would be moderated by FeedbackSeeking behavior. Salesforce personality traits adopted as independent variable in this study includes;



Self-efficacy, Locus of control and Proactive personality. Goal commitment is the Mediator and Feedback seeking behavior is the Moderator.

#### **4.13.1 Statistical Analysis**

This study first calculated descriptive statistics for the variables of interest and control variables, followed by bivariate associations among these variables. Secondly, the study further examined whether the mediation process was moderated by Feedback seeking behavior. According to Hayes, (2013), moderated mediation is used to determine whether the magnitude of a mediation effect is conditional on the value of a moderator. Using conditional process analysis Model 4 (to test for mediation) and model 58 of Hayes's was used to perform and analyze the moderated mediation effect.

The Bootstrapping method was used to test for the significance of the effects so as to obtain robust standard errors for parameter estimation (Hayes, 2013). The bootstrapping method produced 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals of these effects from 5000 resamples of the data. Confidence intervals that do not contain zero indicate effects that are significant at  $\alpha = 05$ . In each model, the covariates used for control were, Gender, Age, Tenure, Working within the insurance sector and education levels.

#### **4.13.2 Effect of Control Variables on Sales Performance**

Results from the study indicate that gender and Working within the sector was sig. with  $\beta = 0.03$ ,  $0.03$  respectively. The study shows that Age, Tenure and Education were insignificant. Gender and Tenure were sig with  $\beta = 0.02$  and  $0.03$  respectively but the rest were insignificant.

#### 4.13.3 Effect of a) Self-efficacy, b) Locus of control, c) Proactive Personality on Sales performance

Hypotheses **H01** states that there is no significant relationship between a) Self-efficacy, b) Locus of control, c) Proactive Personality on Sales Performance. Results from table 4.24 model 2 indicates that:

- a) Self-efficacy has a  $\beta = 0.44$ ,  $SE = 0.04$ ,  $t = 9.92$  and  $p = 0.00$ . Since the  $p < 0.01$ , this hypothesis is rejected and conclusion made that Self-Efficacy has a significant direct relationship on Sales Performance. The significant results showed that the higher the Self-efficacy, the more a sales person will strive to meet the sales quotas and sales volumes set for them. Sales people with low self-efficacy put less effort when they are learning and performing complex tasks as they are not sure whether their effort will lead them into meeting the set sales targets.
- b) Locus of control has a  $\beta = -0.02$ ,  $SE = 0.03$ ,  $t = -0.67$  and  $p = 0.51$ . Since the  $p > 0.05$ , this hypothesis is accepted and conclusion made that Locus of control has no significant relationship on Sales Performance. This finding is contrary to the study by Cobb-Clark & Schurer, (2012) who observed that locus of control plays an important role in closing deals or sales at work. It has been observed that locus of control is correlated to various important work outcomes including the ability to close deals/ sales and success in sales performance. This contrast is also witnessed by studies done by other researchers like Markman & Baron, (2013) who found that Locus of control has a significant connection with closing sales deals, job performance, and career Success.

- c) Proactive Personality has a  $\beta = 0.27$ ,  $SE = 0.04$ ,  $t = 6.27$  and  $p = 0.00$ . Since the  $p < 0.05$ , the hypothesis is rejected and conclusion made that Proactive personalities has a significant relationship on Sales Performance. The significant results shows that sales people with proactive behaviors, when they are intrinsically motivated, confident in the tasks of selling, and willing to take risks, results in great performance. Also, individuals with proactive personalities are motivated to engage in positive extra-role behaviors such as identifying improvement opportunities and challenging the status quo, and more specific behaviors such as innovation and career management which leads to higher Sales performance

#### **4.13.4: Effect of a) Self-efficacy, b) Locus of control, c) Proactive Personality on Goal Commitment**

Hypothesis **H02** states that there is no significant effect of a) Self-efficacy, b) Locus of control, c) Proactive Personality on Goal commitment. The findings from the study on table 4.24 model 1, reveals that:

- a) Self-Efficacy has a  $\beta = 0.26$ ,  $SE = 0.04$ ,  $t = 5.71$  and  $p = 0.00$ . Since the  $p < 0.05$ , this hypothesis is rejected and conclusion made that Self Efficacy has a direct effect on Goal commitment. The significant results indicates that Self- Efficacy strengthens the level of goal commitment of an individual. This finding is in line with Locke & Latham (2013) who states that Goals affect behavior of an individual and in the long run affects job performance.
- b) Locus of control has a  $\beta = -0.00$ ,  $SE = 0.02$ ,  $t = -0.13$  and  $p = 0.90$ . Since the  $p > 0.05$ , the hypothesis is accepted. This implies that Locus of control has no significant relationship on Goal commitment. This finding is contrary to prior

studies done by Lau, W. K. (2012), who's finding show that goal commitment and locus of control are related.

- c) Proactive personalities has a  $\beta = -0.23$ ,  $SE = 0.04$ ,  $t = 5.60$  and  $p = 0.00$ . Since the  $p < 0.05$ , this hypothesis is rejected and conclusion made that Proactive personalities has a direct effect on Goal commitment. This result is supported by *Klein et al.*, (2012) who states that Goal Commitment is associated with persistence and may therefore lead people who have (proactive) the most ambitious goals to persist in attaining them despite of all the challenges.

#### **4.13.5 Effect of Goal commitment on Sales Performance**

Hypothesis **H03** states that there is no significant relationship between goal commitment and Sales performance. Based on the three parameters of the Independent variables a) Self-Efficacy, b) Locus of Control, c) Proactive Personality) Results from the regression analysis shown on table 4.24 model 2 shows that Goal commitment effect on Sales performance had a  $\beta = 0.15$ ,  $SE = 0.05$ ,  $t = 3.02$  and  $p = 0.00$ . Since  $p < 0.01$ ;  $\beta = 0.28$ ,  $SE = 0.05$ ,  $t = 5.23$  and  $p = 0.00$ . Since  $p < 0.00$ ;  $\beta = 0.20$ ,  $SE = 0.05$ ,  $t = 3.70$  and  $p = 0.00$ . Since  $p < 0.05$ , Conclusion is therefore made that Goal commitment has a significant direct effect on Sales Performance. The significant results were in line with Goal setting theory as discussed by Latham, (2013) who argues that the idea behind goal setting theory is that humans translate motivational forces into observable behavior through the process of setting and pursuing goals. Goals are therefore seen as the most effective motivational devices which promote behavioral patterns that are conducive to high performance and success in any task. According to Latham goals lead people to focus on attention, exert effort, persistence in the face of challenge, and engage in strategy development which affects Sales

performance. Goals play an indispensable role in the motivational process by facilitating the connection between motivation, behavior and overall performance.

**Table 4.24: (MODEL 58)-REGRESSION RESULTS**

	Model 1		Model 2	
	Mediator (Goal Commitment)	$R^2$	Dependent Variable (Sales Performance)	$R^2$
Self-Efficacy	0.26***	(0.18)	0.44***	(0.13)
Locus of Contr	-0.00	(0.12)	-0.02	(0.16)
Proactive Per	-0.23***	(0.19)	0.27***	(0.23)
Goal Commit			0.15**,0.28***,0.20***	
Self Eff×FeedBa	-0.11**		Goal C×FeedBa -0.00	
Locus × FeedBa	-0.10**		Goal C×FeedBa -0.04	
Proactive ×Feed	-0.11**		Goal C×FeedBa -0.01	

**Table 4.26(a): Conditional Indirect Effect (s) of Feedback Seeking Behaviour on the relationship between Self-Efficacy and Sales Performance via Goal Commitment**

	Feedback	Beta coef.	SE	BootLLC1	BootULC1
Goal Commit	-0.73	0.05	0.03	0.01	0.11
Goal Commit	0.00	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.08
Goal Commit	0.73	0.02	0.02	0.00	0.08

Source: Research data (2017)

**Table 4.26(b): Conditional Indirect Effect (s) of Feedback Seeking Behaviour on the relationship between Locus of Control and Sales Performance via Goal Commitment**

	Feedback	Beta coef.	SE	BootLLC1	BootULC1
Goal Commit	-0.73	0.02	0.02	-0.01	0.06
Goal Commit	0.00	-0.00	0.01	-0.02	0.01
Goal Commit	0.73	-0.02	0.01	-0.04	-0.00

Source: Research data (2017)

**Table 4.26(c): Conditional Indirect Effect (s) of Feedback Seeking Behaviour on the relationship between Proactive Personality and Sales Performance via Goal Commitment**

	Feedback	Beta coef.	SE	BootLLC1	BootULC1
Goal Commit	-0.73	0.06	0.02	0.02	0.11
Goal Commit	0.00	0.05	0.02	0.02	0.08
Goal Commit	0.73	0.03	0.02	0.00	0.08

Source: Research data (2017)

Note: N=448 for all models. Level of sig \*\*\*p<0.01, \*\*p<0.05, \*p<0.1

**4.13.6: The Mediating effect of Goal commitment on the relationship between a) Self-efficacy, b) Locus of control, c) Proactive Personality and Sales Performance.**

Hypothesis **H04** states that there is no significant mediating effect of Goal commitment on the relationship between a) Self-efficacy, b) Locus of control, c) Proactive Personality and Sales Performance. Using Hayes model 4, the direct effect(s) of Self Efficacy on Goal Commitment, Locus of Control on Goal Commitment, Proactive Personality on Goal Commitment as presented on table 4.25 model 1 were as follows: Self-Efficacy on Goal Commitment was significant at a  $\beta = -0.33$ ,  $SE = 0.041$ ,  $t = 8.10$  with  $p = 0.00$ ,  $LLCI = 0.25$   $ULCI = -0.41$ . Locus of Control on Goal Commitment was not significant at a  $\beta = -0.03$ ,  $SE = 0.02$ ,  $t = -1.07$  with  $p = 0.28$ ,  $LLCI = -0.07$   $ULCI = -0.02$ . Direct effect of Proactive Personality on Goal Commitment was significant at a  $\beta = 0.31$ ,  $SE = 0.04$ ,  $t = -8.10$  with  $p = 0.00$ ,  $LLCI = 0.23$   $ULCI = 0.38$ . Direct effect of Self-efficacy on Sales Performance was a  $\beta = 0.44$ ,  $SE = 0.04$ ,  $t = 10.31$  with  $p = 0.00$ ,  $LLCI = 0.36$   $ULCI = 0.53$ , Direct effect of Locus of Control on Sales Performance a  $\beta = -0.02$ ,  $SE = 0.03$ ,  $t = -0.73$  with  $p = 0.46$ ,  $LLCI = -0.07$   $ULCI = 0.03$ . Direct effect of Proactive Personality on Sales Performance a  $\beta = 0.29$ ,  $SE = 0.04$ ,  $t = 6.71$  with  $p = 0.00$ ,  $LLCI = 0.20$   $ULCI = 0.37$ . Results on table 4.25 model 2.

Direct effect(s) of Goal Commitment on Sales Performance as per the three measurements based on the independent variables i.e. a) Self-Efficacy, b) Locus of Control, c) Proactive Personality was significant at  $\beta = 0.16$ ,  $\beta = 0.33$ ,  $\beta = 0.21$  Results on table 4.25 model 2. To test for Mediating effect of Goal Commitment on the relationship between Self-Efficacy and Sales Performance, Formula of Hayes (2013) was used to test for the indirect effect of Self Efficacy on Sales Performance through

Goal Commitment ( $Mi = ai bi$ ) ( $ai=0.33$ ,  $bi= 0.44$ ) ( $ai \times bi$ ) =  $0.33 \times 0.44 = 0.05$ . This is evident on table 4.25 model 1 where the result shows the existence of a mediation effect of Goal commitment. Results as follows: a) Self-Efficacy and Sales performance with  $\beta = 0.05$  and both LLCI 0.01 and ULCI 0.09 being positive, the hypothesis is rejected and conclude that Goal commitment mediates the relationship between Self-Efficacy and Sales Performance. This result is supported by Latham (2013) whose study have shown that self-efficacy, which captures the beliefs of an individual holds about his or her capability to succeed, correlates with both higher goals and stronger commitment to them.

b) On Locus of Control, Hayes (2013) formula was used to test for the Indirect effect of  $X$  on  $Y$  through  $Mi = ai bi$  ( $ai= -0.03$ ,  $bi= 0.33$ ) ( $ai \times bi$ ) =  $-0.03 \times 0.33 = -0.01$ . The findings on table 4.25 model 1 shows that there is no existence of a mediation effect of Goal commitment on the relationship between Locus of control and Sales performance with  $\beta = -0.01$  with LLCI -0.03 and ULCI 0.01, therefore the hypothesis is not rejected and conclusion is that Goal commitment does not mediate the relationship between Locus of control and Sales Performance.

c) On Proactive Personality, Hayes, (2013) formula was used to test for the Indirect effect of  $X$  on  $Y$  through  $Mi = ai bi$  ( $ai= 0.31$ ,  $bi=0.21$ ) ( $a \times b$ ) =  $0.31 \times 0.21 = 0.07$ . The findings on table 4.25 model 2 shows that there is existence of a mediation effect of Goal commitment on the relationship between Proactive personalities and Sales performance with LLCI 0.03 and ULCI 0.11, therefore the hypothesis was rejected and conclusion was that Goal commitment mediates the relationship between Proactive personalities and Sales Performance. Hayes Model 4 results further confirmed the outcome (Refer to appendix 10 on results).

**Table 4.25: (Model 4) Mediation Results**

Model 1	Mediator(Goal Commitment)		Model 2	
	$R^2$		Dependent Variable(Sales Performance )	
				$R^2$
Self-Efficacy	0.33***	(0.14)	0.44***	(0.31)
Locus of Con	-0.03	(0.01)	-0.02	(0.15)
Proactive Per	-0.31***	(0.14)	0.29***	(0.23)
Goal Commit			0.16**, 0.33***, 0.21***	
$a_1 \times b_1$ (SE&SP)	0.05(sin)			
$a_1 \times b_1$ (LC&SP)	-0.01(non-sin)			
$a_1 \times b_1$ (PP&SP)	0.07(sin)			

**Note:**

$a_1 \times b_1$  (SE&SP).....Mediating effect of Goal Commitment on the relationship between Sales Efficacy and Sales Performance

$a_1 \times b_1$  (LC&SP)..... Mediating effect of Goal Commitment on the relationship between Locus of Control and Sales Perfonce

$a_1 \times b_1$  (LC&SP)..... Mediating effect of Goal Commitment on the relationship between Proactive Personality and Sales Performance

N=448 for all models. Level of sig \*\*\*p<0.01, \*\*p<0.05, \*p<0.1

**4.13.7: The Moderating effect of Feedback Seeking Behavior on the relationship between a) Self-Efficacy, b) Locus of Control, c) Proactive Personality and Goal commitment**

Hypothesis **HO5** states that there is no significant moderating effect of Feedback Seeking behavior on the relationship between a) Self-Efficacy, b) Locus of Control, c) Proactive Personality and Goal commitment. The findings from table 4.24 model 1 indicates the interaction between these variables as follows:



- a) Self-Efficacy  $\beta = -0.11$ ,  $SE = 0.04$ ,  $t = -2.60$  with  $p = 0.01$ ,  $LLCI = -0.20$   $ULCI = -0.03$ . Since the  $p < .05$  and both LLCI and ULCI have the same negative sign, this hypothesis was rejected. Results showed that Feedback seeking behavior moderates the relationship between Self Efficacy and Goal Commitment. This indicates that people with high Self-Efficacy use Feedback Seeking productively (for role clarification), but those with low Self-Efficacy do Not.
- b) On Locus of control and Goal commitment, results indicates the interaction between these variables with a  $\beta = -0.10$ ,  $SE = 0.03$ ,  $t = -3.18$  with  $p = 0.00$ ,  $LLCI = -0.16$   $ULCI = -0.04$ . Since the  $p < .05$  and both LLCI and ULCI have the same negative sign, this hypothesis is rejected. This showed that Feedback seeking behavior moderates the relationship between Locus of control and Goal Commitment (Results on table 4.24 model 1). The results indicate that those who have higher Goal commitment will have a tendency to seek feedback from not just a supervisor, but also their colleagues.
- c) On Proactive personality and Goal commitment, results from table 4.24 model 1 indicates the interaction between these variables with a  $\beta = -0.11$ ,  $SE = 0.04$ ,  $t = -2.85$  with  $p = 0.00$ ,  $LLCI = -0.18$   $ULCI = -0.03$ . Since the  $p < .05$  and both LLCI and ULCI have the same negative sign, this hypothesis is rejected. Results showed that Feedback seeking behavior moderates the relationship between Proactive Personality and Goal Commitment. This implies that proactive people will always seek information that will enable them achieve their set goals.

#### **4.13.8 Moderating effect of Feedback Seeking Behavior on the relationship between Goal commitment and Sales Performance.**

Hypothesis **H06** postulated that there was no significant moderating effect of Feedback Seeking Behaviour on the relationship between Goal Commitment and Sales Performance. Results on table 4.24 model 2 shows the three interactions (as a result of the three independent variables a) Self-Efficacy, b) Locus of Control, c) Proactive Personality) of Feedback Seeking behavior on the relationship between Goal commitment and Sales Performance. The findings indicates  $\beta = -0.00$  SE= 0.04,  $t = -0.03$  and  $p = 0.98$ .;  $\beta = -0.04$  SE= 0.05,  $t = -0.77$  and  $p = 0.44$ .;  $\beta = -0.04$  SE= 0.05,  $t = -0.77$  and  $p = 0.44$ . Since the  $p > .05$ , the hypothesis was accepted and concluded that Feedback seeking behavior has no significant moderating effect on the relationship between Goal commitment and Sales Performance.

#### **4.13.9 Feedback Seeking Behavior does not have any significant Moderating effect on the indirect relationship between a) Self-Efficacy, b) Locus of Control, c) Proactive Personality and Sales Performance via Goal Commitment**

Hypothesis **H07**, to test the moderated mediation hypothesis, the study estimated parameters for two regression models with PROCESS macro (Model 58) by Hayes (2013). Table 4.24 indicates the results of the estimates of the moderating effect of Feedback seeking behavior, that is, the relationship between Self efficacy and Sales performance (Model 2) and the relationship between Self efficacy and Goal commitment (Model 1). The specifications of the two models were summarized in Table 4.26(a).

According to Hayes, (2013), the moderated mediation would be established if one or both of the two patterns existed: (a) the path between Self efficacy and Goal commitment is moderated by feedback seeking behavior, and/or (b) the path between Goal commitment and Sales performance is moderated by feedback seeking behavior.

As indicated in Table 4.24, Model 1 reveals that there was a significant direct effect of Self efficacy on Goal commitment,  $\beta = 0.26$ ,  $p < 0.00$ , and this effect is moderated by feedback seeking behavior,  $\beta = -0.11$ ,  $p = 0.01$ . Model 2 indicated that the effect of Self-efficacy on Sales Performance was significant,  $\beta = 0.44$ ,  $p < 0.00$ , but this effect was not moderated by feedback seeking behavior,  $\beta = -0.00$ ,  $p = 0.98$ . Since the  $p > 0.5$ , there was only first stage moderated mediation in this relationship (Model 1).

The study further shows that the bias-corrected percentile bootstrap results of the indirect effect of Self efficacy on Sales performance via Goal commitment was moderated by Feedback seeking behavior, with the index of moderated mediation indicating  $\beta = 0.04$ ,  $SE = 0.02$ ,  $95\% \text{ CI} = [0.01, 0.08]$ , for low Feedback seeking behavior, Self-efficacy has a high impact on Sales performance through increased Goal commitment,  $\beta = -0.73$   $SE = 0.05$ ,  $95\% \text{ CI} = [0.01, 0.11]$ . It is therefore concluded that the indirect effect was much stronger for lower feedback seeking behavior,  $95\% \text{ CI} = [0.01, 0.11]$  than in the higher feedback seeking behavior,  $95\% \text{ CI} = [0.00, 0.08]$ .

On Locus of Control, a similar procedure was followed in testing the moderated mediation hypothesis. The table reveals results of the estimates of the moderating effect of Feedback seeking behavior, that is, the relationship between Locus of control and Goal commitment table 4.24(Model 1)) and the relationship between Locus of control and Sales performance (Model 2). The specifications of the two models were

summarized in Table 4.26(b). In each model, covariates were also controlled (Gender, Age, Tenure, Working within the insurance sector and education levels). From the results of Model 1, gender was found to be significant with a  $p = 0.02$  and in Model 2, Tenure was significant with a  $p < 0.21$

Following the previous procedure, as discussed in the first variable, the moderated mediation effect would be established if; (a) the path between Locus of control and Goal commitment is moderated by feedback seeking behavior, and/or (b) the path between Goal commitment and Sales performance is moderated by feedback seeking behavior.

The findings shows that there was no direct effect of Locus of control on Goal commitment,  $\beta = 0.00$ ,  $p > 0.05$ , though this effect is moderated by feedback seeking behavior,  $\beta = -0.10$ ,  $p = 0.00$ . Model 2 indicated that the effect of Locus of control on Goal commitment was not significant,  $\beta = -0.04$ ,  $p = 0.44$ , hence it was not moderated by feedback seeking behavior.

The findings further indicates the bias-corrected percentile bootstrap results of the indirect effect of b) Locus of control on Sales performance via Goal commitment was not moderated by Feedback seeking behavior, with the index of moderated mediation indicating  $\beta = -0.00$ ,  $SE = 0.01$ ,  $95\% CI = [-0.02, 0.01]$ . Though the first model shows an interaction with  $p < 0.00$ , the results of index shows  $\beta = -0.00$ ,  $SE = 0.01$ ,  $95\% CI = [-0.02, 0.01]$  indicating that there is no moderated mediation in this model. Based on the above results, the hypothesis was accepted and concluded that Feedback seeking behavior has no moderating effect on the indirect relationship between Locus of control and Sales performance via Goal commitment.

c) Proactive Personality was also tested by following a similar procedure undertaken in the first and second variables. The table reveals results of the estimates of the moderating effect of Proactive personalities, that is, the relationship between Proactive Personalities and Goal commitment 4.24(Model 1) and the relationship between Proactive Personalities and Sales performance(Model 2). The specifications of the two models were summarized in Table 4.26(c). In each model, covariates were controlled (Gender, Age, Tenure, Working within the insurance sector and education levels).

A similar assumption was made that the moderated mediation effect would be established if; (a) the path between Proactive Personalities and Goal commitment is moderated by feedback seeking behavior, and/or (b) the path between Goal commitment and Sales performance is moderated by feedback seeking behavior.

As indicated in the results, there was a significant direct effect of Proactive personalities on Goal commitment,  $\beta = 0.23$ ,  $p < 0.05$ , and this effect is moderated by feedback seeking behavior,  $\beta = -0.11$ ,  $p \leq 0.00$  LLC1= -0.18, ULC1= -0.03. Model 2 reveals that the effect of Proactive personalities on Sales performance was significant,  $\beta = 0.28$ ,  $p = 0.00$ , but this effect was not moderated by feedback seeking behavior,  $\beta = -0.01$ ,  $p \leq 0.88$ , LLC1= -0.10, ULC1= 0.08. Since  $p > 0.5$ , the study confirms only the first stage moderated mediation indicated in model 1.

The study further confirms the bias-corrected percentile bootstrap results of the indirect effect of Proactive personalities on Sales performance via Goal commitment being moderated by Feedback seeking behavior, with the index of moderated mediation indicating  $\beta = 0.05$ , SE= 0.02, 95% CI = [0.02, 0.08] For low Feedback seeking behavior, Proactive personalities had a high influence on Sales performance

through increased Goal commitment,  $\beta = -0.73$  SE = 0.06, 95% CI = [0.02, 0.11], it was therefore concluded that the indirect effect was much stronger for lower feedback seeking behavior, 95% CI = [.0166, .1135] than in the higher feedback seeking behavior, SE= 0.03, 95% CI = [0.00, 0.08].

**Table 4.27: Summary of Hypotheses Tests Results**

	Hypothesis	Beta	p	LLC1	ULC1	Results
H <sub>01</sub>	a) There is no significant direct effect of Self- Efficacy on Sales performance	0.44	0.00			REJECT
	b) There is no significant direct effect of Locus of control on Sales performance	-0.02	0.51	-	-	ACCEPT
	c) There is no significant direct effect of Proactive personalities on Sales performance	0.28	0.00			REJECT
H <sub>02</sub>	a) There is no significant direct effect of Self-Efficacy on Goal Commitment	0.26	0.00			REJECT
	b) There is no significant direct effect of Locus of control on Goal Commitment	-0.00	0.90	-	-	ACCEPT
	c) There is no significant direct effect of Proactive personalities on Goal Commitment	-0.23	0.00			REJECT
H <sub>03</sub>	a) There is no significant direct effect of Goal commitment on Sales Performance	0.15	0.00			REJECT
	b) There is no significant direct effect of Goal commitment on Sales Performance	0.28	0.00	-	-	REJECT
	c) There is no significant direct effect of Goal commitment on Sales Performance	0.20	0.00			REJECT
H <sub>04</sub>	a) There is no significant mediating effect of Goal commitment on the relationship between Self-Efficacy and Sales Performance.	0.05		0.01	0.10	REJECT
	b) There is no significant mediating effect of Goal commitment on the relationship between Locus of control and Sales Performance.	-0.01	-	-0.03	0.01	ACCEPT
	c) There is no significant mediating effect of Goal commitment on the relationship between Proactive personalities and Sales Performance.	0.07	-	0.03	0.11	REJECT
H <sub>05</sub>	a) There is no significant moderating effect of Feedback Seeking Behavior on the relationship between Self-Efficacy and Goal commitment	-0.11	0.01	-0.20	-0.01	REJECT
	b) There is no significant moderating effect of Feedback Seeking Behavior on the relationship between Locus of control and Goal commitment	-0.10	0.00	-0.16	-0.04	REJECT
	c) There is no significant moderating effect of Feedback Seeking Behavior on the relationship between Proactive personalities and Goal commitment	-0.11	0.00	-0.18	-0.03	REJECT
H <sub>06</sub>	a) There is no significant moderating effect of Feedback Seeking Behavior on the relationship between Goal commitment and Sales Performance.	-0.00	0.98	-	-	ACCEPT
	b) There is no significant moderating effect of Feedback Seeking Behavior on the relationship between Goal commitment and Sales Performance.	-0.04	0.44	-	-	ACCEPT
	c) There is no significant moderating effect of Feedback Seeking Behavior on the relationship between Goal commitment and Sales Performance.	-0.01	0.88	-	-	ACCEPT
H <sub>07</sub>	a) Feedback Seeking Behavior does not have any significant moderating effect on the indirect relationship between Self-Efficacy and Sales Performance via Goal Commitment	-0.73	-	0.01	0.11	REJECT
	b) Feedback Seeking Behavior does not have any significant moderating effect on the indirect relationship between locus of control and Sales Performance via Goal Commitment	-0.00	-	-0.02	0.01	ACCEPT
	c) Feedback Seeking Behavior does not have any significant moderating effect on the indirect relationship between Proactive personality and Sales Performance via Goal Commitment	-0.73	-	0.02	0.11	REJECT

Source: Research Data, (2017)

*Note: sig at p<0.05*

## CHAPTER FIVE

### SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 5.0 Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of study findings, conclusion, theoretical and managerial implications, limitations of the study and recommendations in relevance to the study based on the objectives and hypotheses.

#### 5.1 Summary of Research Findings

The main objective of this study was to investigate the Moderated mediation effect of Feedback Seeking Behavior and Goal Commitment on the indirect relationship between Sales force personality traits and Sales performance. Preliminary analyses focused on establishing the characteristics of the respondents and descriptions of the response on the measures of the study variables. The research study adopted Model 58 and Model 4 of Hayes's (2013) PROCESS macro to perform and analyze the moderated mediation effect, hence determine whether the magnitude of a mediation effect is conditional on the value of a moderator. The study used bootstrapping method to test for the significance of the effects so as to obtain robust standard errors for parameter estimation (Hayes, 2013). Confidence intervals that do not contain zero indicate effects that are significant at  $\alpha = 05$ .

##### 5.1.1 Effect of a) Self- Efficacy, b) Locus of Control, c) Proactive Personality on Sales Performance

The study had proposed the null hypothesis; **H01** that there is no significant relationship between a) Self- Efficacy, b) Locus of Control, c) Proactive Personality on Sales performance. The findings from the study reveals that:-



a) Self-Efficacy had a  $\beta=0.44$ ,  $p < 0.00$ , indicating that Self efficacy has a positive and significant influence on Sales performance. Self-efficacy being regarded as a person's belief and capability of performing a particular task successfully, the person is able to cope up with any situation that may arise in his/her line of duty hence performance may not be affected. This finding is in line with prior studies done by (Lunenburg, 2011) and (Ivancevich *et al.*, 2011). These researchers agree that people perform their duties at different levels which are consistent with their Self-Efficacy beliefs. Sales people with low levels of self-efficacy tend to set relatively low goals for themselves, due to their belief in inability to meet the sales targets set for them. Their study also shows that employees with high self-efficacy generally work hard and are willing to learn how to perform new tasks; this is due to their confidence that their efforts will be successful and will lead to meeting the sales targets set for them. But sales people with low self-efficacy put less effort when they are learning and performing complex tasks as they are not sure whether their effort will lead them into meeting the set sales targets. We therefore conclude that the higher the self-efficacy, the more a sales person will strive to meet the sales quotas and sales volumes set for them.

b) Locus of control on Sales Performance, results indicates that Locus of control had a  $\beta= -0.02$ ,  $t= -0.67$  and  $p < 0.51$ . Since the  $p > .05$ , the study reveals that Locus of control has no significant direct effect on Sales Performance. Locus of control is the extent to which individuals believe that they have control over their own destiny. In other words, locus of control refers to the circumstances that individuals attribute their success and failures to Ogunyemi, (2013). This finding is contrary to the study of Magandini & Ngwenya, (2015); Fong *et*

*al.*, (2017), who states that individuals with a strong internal locus of control believe events in their life derive primarily from their own actions. All the above authors agree that the individual have a control over their actions and destiny. The locus of control construct has two dimensions, which are, internal locus of control (Lefcourt, 2013) and external locus of control (Davis, 2013). People with internal LOC believe that they can influence their leads in order to close a sale and that their actions affect what happens to them (Salleh & Kamaruddin, 2011; Ru Hsu, 2011) but people with external LOC believe that they have little influence over the environment and what happens to them is due to external factors such as luck, or the actions of others (Spector 2011, Teece *et al.*, 2015). If a sale is acquired, they believe its luck or chance not their capability.

- c) Proactive personalities on Sales Performance, the finding from the study indicates that Proactive personality has a significant effect on Sales performance with a  $\beta = 0.28$ ,  $t = 6.27$  and  $p = 0.00$ . This hypothesis was rejected. This result is in line with Brown *et al.*, (2016) who argues that Individuals with proactive personalities are motivated to engage in positive extra-role behaviors such as identifying improvement opportunities and challenging the status quo, and more specific behaviors such as innovation and career management which leads to higher Sales performance. This is also echoed by Bakker *et al.*, (2012) whose study shows that individuals with a proactive personality are most inclined to change their work environment in a proactive way, by mobilizing job resources and job demands. Their idea is consistent with Huber, (2017), who showed that individuals with a proactive

personality perform well because they take personal initiative and engage in network building.

### **5.1.2 Effect of a) Self- Efficacy, b) Locus of Control, c) Proactive Personality on Goal Commitment**

The hypothesis **H02** stated that there is no significant relationship between a) Self-Efficacy, b) Locus of Control, c) Proactive Personality on Goal commitment. Results of the study shows that:

- a) Self-Efficacy has a  $\beta = 0.26$ ,  $SE = 0.04$ ,  $t = 5.71$  and  $p = 0.00$ . This implies that Self-efficacy has a positive significance relationship on Goal commitment. This finding is in line with Locke and Latham (2013) who states that Goals affect behavior of an individual and in the long run affects job performance. One's values create a desire to do things consistent with them. This also supported by previous studies done by Diefendorff and Lord, (2003). The researchers asserts that some goals are so compelling because of their intrinsic value that employees are willing to commit to achieving them without the promise of extrinsic rewards, while other goals are so discouraging that employees are unwilling to pursue them regardless of the promise of substantial extrinsic rewards. Their studies shows that in the workplace, the opportunities to set goals to which employees are strongly committed are limited. Employers must set goals that compel employee's willingness to commit and pursue them with the promise of reward or incentive of compensation plans attached on them. This therefore indicates that Self-Efficacy strengthens the level of goal commitment of an individual.
- b) On Locus of control on Goal commitment, the findings from the study reveals that Locus of control had a  $\beta = -0.00$ ,  $t = -0.13$  and  $p = 0.90$ . Since the  $p > 0.05$ ,

it implies that Locus of control has no significant relationship on Goal commitment. This finding is contrary to prior studies done by Lau (2012), who's finding show that goal commitment and locus of control are related. This is consistent with prior research of Igbeneghu *et al.*, (2011) that shows work locus of control which is a personality variable, has a significant inverse relationship with goal commitment.

- c) On Proactive personalities on Goal commitment, the findings reveals that Proactive has a  $\beta = -0.23$ ,  $t = 5.60$  and  $p = 0.00$ . Since the  $p < 0.00$ , it is evident that Proactive personalities have a significant influence on Goal commitment. This result is supported by Klein *et al.*, (2012) who states that Goal Commitment is associated with persistence and may therefore lead people who have (proactive) the most ambitious goals to persist in attaining them despite of all the challenges. Given the strength of the associations between proactive behaviors and goal commitment (Clements & Kamau, 2017), in their study on understanding students' motivation towards proactive career behaviors through goal-setting theory and the job demands–resources model argue that it is important for university careers advisers and personal tutors to encourage career goal commitment in students. This could enhance students' engagement with proactive career behaviors, and potentially lead them to feel more employable. The sales persons with proactive personalities have a tendency to fix what is in the wrong, change things and use well planned ideas to solve problems in order to achieve their goals. The proactive sales people take action to initiate important change instead of waiting to be told what to do. Bo Sun and Zi-Jing Zeng (2014) reviews the relationship between proactive personality and career success under which proactive person is well-matched

with organization. Organizations may obtain the career benefits from proactive personality by ensuring that proactive individuals have high levels of levels of goal commitment. Proactive personalities imply the intention of extending effort toward goal attainment, persistence in pursuing that goal over time, and an unwillingness to lower or give up that goal.

### 5.1.3 Effect of Goal commitment on Sales Performance

Hypothesis **H03** stated that Goal commitment has no significant effect on Sales performance. The results on the three measures based on the independent variables a) Self-Efficacy, b) Locus of Control, c) Proactive Personality from the study were all significant. This reveals that Goal commitment effect on Sales performance with a)  $\beta = 0.15$ ,  $SE = 0.05$ ,  $t = 3.02$  and  $p = 0.00$ . ; b)  $\beta = 0.28$ ,  $SE = 0.05$ ,  $t = 5.23$  and  $p = 0.00$ . Since  $p < 0.00$  ; c)  $\beta = 0.20$ ,  $t = 3.70$  and  $p = 0.00$ . Since  $p < 0.00$ . The result is supported by Klein *et al.*, (2012) who conducted a meta-analysis of 83 studies and concluded that goal commitment is an important moderator of the relationship between goal setting and performance. The authors found that goal commitment moderated the goal-performance link to a greater degree when goal difficulty was high than it did when goal difficulty was low. This finding suggests that for specific, high goals to fulfill their promise of superior performance, strong commitment to those goals is especially important. Aunurrafiq *et al.*, (2015) support this argument that someone's performance is seen on the commitment to work better, contribute ideas and provide the best solutions in achieving the goals. The authors argue that the higher the level of commitment of managers to achieve the set objective, the greater the effort they will give to achieve the goals, hence the performance. Gefen (2005) postulates that when managers and staff understand what goes on in the organization and the reason of doing that, they feel part of the organization and will be committed

seeking ways to help the achievement of corporate goals. The finding is also in line with prior studies done by Asmus *et al.*, (2015). In their study on the impact of goal-setting on worker performance, it became clear that their finding suggests that goal-setting and commitment improves task performance which leads to higher output quantity.

#### **5.1.4 Mediating effect of Goal commitment on the relationship between a) Self-Efficacy, b) Locus of Control, c) Proactive Personality and Sales Performance.**

Hypothesis **H04** postulated that Goal commitment does not mediate the relationship between a) Self- Efficacy, b) Locus of Control, c) Proactive Personality and Sales performance. The result shows the existence of a mediation effect of Goal commitment on the relationships as follows:

- a) Self-Efficacy and Sales performance with  $\beta = 0.05$  and both LLCI= 0.01 and ULCI =0.10 with both Lower and Upper Limit intervals being positive, the study shows that Goal commitment mediates the relationship between Self-Efficacy and Sales Performance. The study is supported by Klein *et al.*, (2012) and Wright & Kacmar (1994) whose studies have found that the expectancy of achieving the goal, the attractiveness of the goal, and the specificity of the goal are all associated with higher levels of commitment of an employee which leads to higher performance.
- b) On Locus of control and Sales Performance, the findings from the study shows that there is no existence of a mediation effect of Goal commitment on the relationship between Locus of control and Sales performance with  $\beta = -0.01$  with LLCI= -0.03 and ULCI=0 .01, which refutes the claim of the mediating

effect in this relationship. This finding is contrary to the study of Magandini & Ngwenya, (2015); Fong *et al.*,(2017), who states that individuals with a strong internal locus of control believe events in their life derive primarily from their own actions.

- c) On Proactive personalities and Sales Performance, the findings of the study shows that there is existence of a mediation effect of Goal commitment on the relationship between Proactive personalities and Sales performance with  $\beta = 0.07$  with LLCI =0.03 and ULCI 0.11. This is a new finding in literature; hence a contribution to knowledge as most of the previous studies like Lau (2012), tested the Impacts of Personality Traits and Goal Commitment on Employees' Job Satisfaction, Mehta *et al.*, (2008), did a research on Team Goal Orientation and Team Performance. But there is no evidence from the literature done on the mediating effect of Goal commitment on the relationship between proactive personalities and sales performance.

### **5.1.5 Moderating effect of Feedback Seeking Behavior on the relationship between a) Self- Efficacy, b) Locus of Control, c) Proactive Personality and Goal commitment**

In hypothesis **H05**, the study confirms existence of the interaction with a) Self Efficacy  $\beta = -0.11$ , SE= 0.04,  $t = -2.60$  with  $p = 0.01$ , LLCI = -0.20 ULCI = -0.03.

- a) This finding is in line with a study done by Brown, *et al.*, (2001) of salespeople working for industrial products firms. They found out that people with high self-efficacy used feedback productively (for role clarification), but those with low self-efficacy did not. Research done by Nifadkar *et al.*, (2012) found out that seeking feedback is a crucial matter as when people seek it from others; they

might receive negative feedback. Seeking of feedback affected most sales as the information sought was crucial as most people are active seekers of feedback Ashford and Cummings as cited in Robson & Robinson, (2013). People may seek feedback for any number of reasons; to improve performance, to set goals, to benefit their egos, or to manage the impressions they make on others but only feedback solicited with the intention of using it productively improves performance.

- b) On Locus of control and Goal commitment, results from this study indicates the existence of an interaction between these variables with a  $\beta = -0.10$ ,  $t = -3.18$  with  $p = 0.00$ , LLCI = -0.16 ULCI = -0.04. The findings of the present research add to the scholarly domain of feedback seeking relationships, Locus of control and Goal commitment. The moderating relationship between these variables from various sources has not been tested to date. Because of these findings, it is clear that those who have higher Goal commitment will have a tendency to seek feedback from not just a supervisor, but also a colleague. The locus of control construct has two dimensions, which are, internal locus of control (Lefcourt, 2013) and external locus of control (Davis, 2013). People with internal LOC believe that they can influence their leads in order to close a sale and that their actions affect what happens to them (Salleh & Kamaruddin, 2011; Ru Hsu, 2011) but people with external LOC believe that they have little influence over the environment and what happens to them is due to external factors such as luck, or the actions of others (Spector, 2011, Teece *et al.*, 2015).
- c) On Proactive personalities and Goal commitment, the finding from the study indicates the existence of interaction between these variables with a  $\beta = -0.11$ ,  $t = -2.85$  with  $p = 0.00$ , LLCI = -0.18 ULCI = -0.03. The study provides new



findings that feedback seeking behavior significantly moderate the relationship between Proactive personalities and Goal commitment. This adds some new understanding to the literature in Sales personality traits, Goal commitment, Feedback seeking behavior, Sales performance and their interrelationships which influence the development of the sales and marketing context.

Brown *et al.*, (2016) have explored the interactive effects of situational judgment effectiveness and proactive personality on work perceptions and outcomes. Wu *et al.*, (2014) found that proactive personality moderated the interactive effect of job autonomy and demands on employee strain. Their results were consistent with the premise that proactive employees take advantage of high job control to manage more effectively the demands they face, whereas passive employees do not take advantage of greater autonomy to this end (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012).

#### **5.1.6 Moderating effect of Feedback Seeking Behavior on the relationship between Goal commitment and Sales Performance**

Hypothesis **H06** postulated that there is no moderating effect of Feedback seeking behavior on the relationship between Goal commitment and Sales performance. The findings based on the three measures based on the independent variables (a) Self Efficacy, b) Locus of Control, c) Proactive Personality) indicates  $\beta = -0.00$  SE= 0.04,  $t = -0.03$   $p = 0.10$ .;  $\beta = -0.04$ , SE= 0.05,  $t = -0.77$  and  $p = 0.44$ .  $\beta = -0.01$ ,  $t = -0.16$  and  $p = 0.88$ . Despite of the importance of these variables in any marketing set up and their direct relationships, the study shows nonexistence of the moderating effect of Feedback Seeking behavior on the relationship between Goal commitment and Sales Performance. This is contrary to the discussion made in reference to De Stobbeleir *et al.*, (2011) who stated that the main purpose of feedback is to specify behaviors that are favorable in attaining the goals set to improve performance. Crommelinck &

Anseel (2013); Srikanth, & Jomon (2013) indicated that behaviour reinforcement and behavior regulation are the two functions performed by feedback. Reinforcing behaviors result from favorable feedback while behavior modification results from unfavorable feedback. Generally, feedback plays a crucial role in determining behavior which results to performance. The original reason for which feedback is sought determine its usefulness as people seek feedback to improve performance, to set goals and commit to them for success, to benefit their egos, or to manage the impressions they make on others but feedback sort with the intention of using it productively improves performance.

**5.1.7 Moderating effect of Feedback Seeking Behavior on the indirect relationship between a) Self- Efficacy, b) Locus of Control, c) Proactive Personality and Sales Performance via Goal Commitment.**

Hypothesis **H07** stated that there is no moderating effect of feedback seeking behavior on the indirect relationship between a) Self- Efficacy, b) Locus of Control, c) Proactive Personality and Sales performance via Goal commitment.

On a) Self Efficacy, the finding reveals the existence of a moderated mediated relationship of feedback seeking behavior on the indirect relationship between these variables with a  $\beta = -0.11$ ,  $p < 0.01$ . This is further confirmed by bias-corrected percentile bootstrap results of the indirect effect of Self efficacy on Sales performance via Goal commitment as moderated by Feedback seeking behavior, with the index of moderated mediation indicating  $\beta = 0.04$ ,  $SE = 0.02$ ,  $95\% CI = [0.01, 0.08]$ . The study provides new findings in the literature that, when there is low Feedback seeking behavior in an organization, Self-efficacy tends to have a high impact on Sales performance through increased Goal commitment,  $\beta = -0.73$   $SE = 0.03$ ,  $95\% CI =$

[0.01, 0.11]. This is proved by the result indicating that the indirect effect was much stronger for lower feedback seeking behavior, 95% CI = [0.01, 0.11] than in the higher feedback seeking behavior, 95% CI = [0.00, 0.08].

On b) Locus of control and Sales performance via Goal commitment, the finding reveals nonexistence of a moderated mediated relationship of feedback seeking behavior on the indirect relationship between these variables with a  $\beta = -0.02$ ,  $p > .05$ . This is further confirmed by bias-corrected percentile bootstrap results of the indirect effect of Locus of Control on Sales performance via Goal commitment as moderated by Feedback seeking behavior, with the index of moderated mediation indicating  $\beta = -0.00$ ,  $SE = 0.01$ , 95% CI = [-0.02, 0.01].

On c) Proactive personalities and Sales performance via Goal commitment, the finding reveals the existence of a moderated mediated relationship of feedback seeking behavior on the indirect relationship between these variables with a  $\beta = -0.11$ ,  $p < .05$  with LLC1 = -0.18, ULC1 = -0.03. This is further confirmed by bias-corrected percentile bootstrap results of the indirect effect of Proactive Personality on Sales performance via Goal commitment as moderated by Feedback seeking behavior, with the index of moderated mediation indicating  $\beta = 0.03$ ,  $SE = 0.02$ , 95% CI = [0.00, 0.08]. The study provides new findings in the literature that, when there is low Feedback seeking behavior in an organization, Proactive personality tends to have a high impact on Sales performance through increased Goal commitment,  $\beta = -0.06$ ,  $SE = 0.02$ , 95% CI = [0.02, 0.11]. This is proved by the result indicating that the indirect effect was much stronger for lower feedback seeking behavior, 95% CI = [0.02, 0.11] than in the higher feedback seeking behavior, 95% CI = [0.00, 0.08].

## 5.2 Conclusion of the Study

This study addressed a gap in the literature by examining the Moderated mediation effect of feedback seeking behavior and Goal Commitment on the indirect relationship between Sales force personality traits and Sales performance. The findings of the study confirm a positive relationship of Self-Efficacy on Sales performance, Self-Efficacy on Goal Commitment, Goal commitment on Sales Performance, Proactive personalities on Sales performance and Proactive personalities on Goal Commitment. Sales personnel are an essential asset and the backbone of every organization, as they are the revenue generators that keep the light of every committed organization illuminating. Without them, the overall corporate objectives will be bedeviled; hence assessing their Sales traits and its impact on performance is paramount to every proactive organization

Self-efficacy has a positive and significant influence on Sales performance. Self-efficacy being regarded as a person's belief and capability of performing a particular task successfully, the person is able to cope up with any situation that may arise in his/her line of duty hence performance may not be affected. People perform their duties at different levels which are consistent with their self-efficacy beliefs. Sales people with low levels of self-efficacy tend to set relatively low goals for themselves, due to their belief in inability to meet the sales targets set for them.

This finding is in line with prior studies done by Lunenburg (2011), (Ivancevich *et al.*, 2011) and Yuussef & Avolio 2007). Their study also shows that employees with high self-efficacy generally work hard and are willing to learn how to perform new tasks; this is due to their confidence that their efforts will be successful and will lead to meeting the sales targets set for them. But sales people with low self-efficacy put less

effort when they are learning and performing complex tasks as they are not sure whether their effort will lead them into meeting the set sales targets. Therefore, the higher the self-efficacy, the more a sales person will strive to close more deals, meet sales quotas and sales volumes set for them, and the more they will interact well and maintain great customer relationships.

Results of proactive personalities indicated that pap has an effect on performance. These results are also supported by Mallin *et al*, (2014) in their study to model and test some of the antecedents (individual characteristics) and outcomes (selling performance) of proactive behavior among younger salespeople. Their findings confirm that younger salespeople tend to engage in proactive behaviors when they are intrinsically motivated, confident in the tasks of selling, and willing to take risks. Proactive behavior, in turn, resulted in salesperson sample demonstrating high levels of behavior performance and job involvement.

The study also confirms the moderation effect of Feedback Seeking Behavior on the relationship between Locus of control and Goal commitment and the Feedback Seeking Behavior on the relationship between Proactive personalities and Goal commitment. Furthermore, the study confirms the Mediating effect of Goal commitment on the relationship between Self-Efficacy and Sales Performance and the Mediating effect of Goal commitment on the relationship between Proactive personalities and Sales Performance.

The study provides new findings that feedback seeking behavior significantly moderate the relationship between Proactive personalities and Goal commitment. This adds some new understanding to the literature in Sales personality traits, Goal commitment, Feedback seeking behavior, Sales performance and their

interrelationships which influence the development of the sales and marketing context.

The study also highlights the importance of Locus of control in the prediction of work related attitudes and behaviors of employees. People with internal locus of control are more satisfied with their jobs and are more likely to display more affective commitment to their goals. The success of an organization and the pursuit of competition depend not only on how the organization makes the most of human competencies, but also on how it stimulates feedback seeking behavior and goal commitment within its workforce. Managers can therefore provide more organizational support and design special training programs for externals for the purpose of strengthening their job satisfaction, feedback seeking behavior and organizational commitment relationship.

Lastly the study confirms Feedback Seeking Behavior does have a significant moderating effect on the indirect relationship between Self-Efficacy and Sales Performance via Goal Commitment and also Feedback Seeking Behavior has a moderating effect on the indirect relationship between Proactive personalities and Sales Performance via Goal Commitment.

### **5.3 Recommendations**

This study recommends the following policies:-

#### **5.3.1 Theoretical Implications**

This study was based on three theories. Self-determination theory (SDT), Goal setting Theory and Vroom Expectancy Theory (ET). The Self-Determination theory (SDT) tries to create an arena where people's psychological needs are investigated in the

basis of self-motivation and personality integration and how these factors are related to performance. This study focused on three Independent variables namely: Self-Efficacy, Locus of Control and Proactive Personality which were investigated empirically. Expectancy theory (ET) posits that a person's behavior is determined by the way they react to certain work environments, how they interact with individuals and how they perform the duties assigned to them. This study focused on a Mediator Goal Commitment and a Moderator Feedback seeking behavior and how these behaviours influenced performance based on individuals' personality traits. The goal setting theory (GC) was used in this study since it generally focuses on understanding the relationship that exists between motivation, behavior, and performance. This theory's main goal is to assess the human's translation on motivational forces into behavior using the process to set and pursue goals. Goals are responsible for bringing out a person's motivation which later shapes it into behavior

The results of the study add some new knowledge to the literature that Goal commitment mediates the relationship between Self-Efficacy, Proactive personalities and Sales Performance. The study also reveals new understanding that, Feedback Seeking Behavior moderates the relationship between; Self-Efficacy and Goal commitment, Locus of control and Goal commitment and Proactive personalities and Goal commitment. Finally the results of the study add some new knowledge to the literature by revealing that Feedback Seeking Behavior has a significant moderating effect on the indirect relationship between; Self-Efficacy and Sales Performance via Goal Commitment and Proactive personality and Sales Performance via Goal Commitment. These results shows interrelationships between the variables and Goal setting theory whose basic idea is that humans translate motivational forces into observable behavior through the process of setting and pursuing goals. Goals are

effective motivational devices which promote behavioral patterns that are conducive to high performance and success. According to Latham, (2007), goals lead people to focus attention, exert effort, persist in the face of challenge, and engage in strategy development, hence influence the development of the marketing industry in a developing country context. Further research of the concept and the nature of the Mediation and Moderating effect are recommended in this field to ascertain the results of this study.

### **5.3.2 Policy Makers Implications**

From the study, it was found that Salesforce personality traits, Goal commitment and Feedback seeking behavior are vital to Sales performance in a marketing perspective. The study will therefore be of a great importance to policy makers in coming up with strategies and policies geared towards improving the selection of sales people especially during the hiring period as personality traits acts as a prediction of work related attitudes and behaviors.

Secondly, improving job satisfaction can be a key priority in the organizations; hence policy makers should formulate policies and strategies which nurture job satisfaction among the employees by seeking feedback of their performance as they pursue to achieve the individual desired and organization's set goals. The focus of policies should go beyond mere factors like salary and working conditions, but should include organizational culture fostering better relations with coworkers and supervisors and innovative solutions to give workers functional autonomy, flexibility and a sense of ownership in their work. Furthermore, police makers need to formulate strategies to enhance commitment among the employees by providing more organizational support



and design which may include special training programs for externals for the purpose of strengthening commitment relationship.

### **5.3.3 Managerial and Leadership Implications**

In the new dispensation, insurance companies in Kenya must develop a 360-degree view of the customer, where they know the customers' needs and potential and deliver it back on their terms – in real time. The companies should develop a multi-intermediary approach to business allowing the potential customers access information and services through their well trained and motivated salesforce. The findings of this study reveal strong implications for organizational leaders and managers in the insurance industry in relation to Salesforce personality traits, Goal commitment, and Feedback seeking behavior in enhancing Sales performance. Managers therefore need to help their sales persons to know the right thing to do in every selling situation through indoor training or programs as it helps them feel confident of their ability to perform their sales job well and perform effectively on many different tasks given to them. All these have been found to increase sales performance in the Sales workforce.

Managers should also ensure that their sales force understand that; their behavior can greatly influence the selling outcome, sales performance is strongly related to the efforts they make, and that every personnel is in a position of fixing what is wrong, hence they can excel at identifying opportunities. Strategies should also be in place to ensure sales personnel strongly feel committed to pursuing their goal and there is much to be gained by trying to achieve it and no situation should stop them from pursuing their desired or set goal.

Lastly, managers should set up processes and provisions within their firms that promotes feedback seeking behavior as sales personnel prefer to be told on their overall work performance, how they can improve it, their job performance in comparison to co-workers and would always seek feedback from supervisors about potential advancement within the company. This is because most workforces prefer supervisor's evaluation of their performance as they believe it controls their future in the sector.

#### **5.4 Limitations of the Study**

Like any other study, this research had some limitations. This study used the cross-sectional design from which it becomes difficult to draw conclusions about the causal relationships among variables. A longitudinal study design is therefore recommended for future researchers as it may provide a more rigorous test of relationships.

Secondly, the sample of this study was only limited to Kenyan employees and in specific, insurance companies with branches in Mombasa county. There might be some culture specific issues which might have been overlooked. Future studies may benefit from an exploration of a wider range of employees at different organizational levels, cultures, and sectors.

#### **5.5 Suggestions for Future Study**

The researcher recommends that a similar research be done on the effect of feedback seeking behavior and goal commitment on the indirect relationship between salesforce personality traits and sales performance on insurance sales managers in Kenya. Further, a study can be carried out focusing on other dimensions of personality traits different from the variables used in this study.

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**APPENDICES****Appendix 1: Introduction letter.**

Zippy Mukami Njagi

C/o Moi University, P.O Box 3900, Eldoret.

Mobile no: 0720369603

Email: njagizippy@gmail.com

Dear Sir/Madam

**Re: Research Questionnaire**

I am a post graduate student in the School of Business and Economics in Moi University undertaking Research. I will greatly appreciate if you will complete the questionnaire which will be used for research purposes only.

The anonymity and confidentiality of your responses is guaranteed. Should you have any questions or doubt, please feel free to contact Moi University or myself on the above address. Once completed, please hand in the questionnaire to me or my research assistant. Kindly answer all questions.

Thanks in advance for you cooperation



## Appendix 2: Questionnaire

### QUESTIONNAIRE FOR SALES AGENTS

This questionnaire has been designed to obtain information on assessing sales performance, sales force personality traits, goal commitment and feedback seeking behavior for academic purposes.

Your assistance is therefore requested in helping to make this research successful by simply completing the questionnaire provided. Any information given will be treated as confidential. Please be as candid as possible and tick (✓) the response that applies to the questions below and fill in the space where appropriate.

#### SECTION A (a): SALES PERFORMANCE

This section helps you to rate your Sales Performance. Please answer all items by ticking the appropriate response using the scale: **1. =”Among the worst in the company, 2: =Below average, 3:= Average, 4:= Above average 5:= Among the best in the company”**

	Statements	1	2	3	4	5
SP1	How would you rate yourself in terms of the quantity of work (e.g., sales) you achieve?					
SP2	How do you rate yourself in terms of the quality of your performance in regard to customer relations?					
SP3	How do you rate yourself in terms of quality of your performance in regard to knowledge of your products?					
SP4	How would you rate your performance in sales presentation effectiveness?					
SP5	How do you rate yourself in terms of quality of your performance in regard to knowledge of your competitors' products?					
SP6	How do you rate yourself in terms of quality of your performance in regard to knowledge of your customer needs?					
SP7	How do you rate yourself in terms of your performance in regard to the time taken to close a deal?					

**SECTION A(b): Self-Efficacy**

Please tick (√) the appropriate box or correct response on the basis of the following scale:  
**1=Strongly Disagree; 2=Disagree 3=Neutral 4= Agree; 5= Strongly Agree**

To What extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements on your Self-Efficacy?

	Statements	1	2	3	4	5
SE 1	I know the right thing to do in selling situations					
SE 2	Overall, I am confident of my ability to perform my job well.					
SE 3	I feel I am very capable at the task of selling.					
SE 4	I feel I have the capabilities to successfully perform this job					
SE 5	Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well					
SE 6	I always perform effectively on many different tasks					
SE 7	When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them					

**SECTION A(c): Locus of Control (Internal)**

Please tick (√) the appropriate box or correct response on the basis of the following scale:  
**1=Strongly Disagree; 2=Disagree 3=Neutral 4= Agree; 5= Strongly Agree**

To What extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements on Locus of Control (Internal)?

	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
LC1	It is my belief that I can solely overcome the obstacles on sales work.					
LC2	I Personally should be responsible for the failure of not reaching the sales quota.					
LC3	My behavior can greatly influence my selling outcome.					
LC4	Sales performance is strongly related to the efforts I have made.					
LC5	I belief that making money is a matter of good fortune					
LC6	I am in this position because of the connections I have					
LC7	I will get promoted because of luck					

**SECTION A(d): Proactive Personality**

Please tick (✓) the appropriate box or correct response on the basis of the following scale:  
**1=Strongly Disagree; 2=Disagree 3=Neutral 4= Agree; 5= Strongly Agree**

To What extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements on Proactive personality?

	Statements	1	2	3	4	5
PP1	I am always fixing what is wrong					
PP2	I am very reliable to my customers					
PP3	I always solve customers problems					
PP4	If I believe in an idea, no obstacle will prevent me from making it happen					
PP5	No matter what the odds, if I believe in something I will make it happen					
PP6	I love being a champion for my ideas, even against others' opposition.					
PP7	I excel at identifying opportunities.					

**SECTION A(e): Goal Commitment**

Please tick (✓) the appropriate box or correct response on the basis of the following scale:  
**1=Strongly Disagree; 2=Disagree 3=Neutral 4= Agree; 5= Strongly Agree**

To What extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements on Goal commitment?

	Statements	1	2	3	4	5
GC1	I am strongly committed to pursuing my goal					
GC2	I think a goal is good to shoot for.					
GC3	I am willing to put forth a great deal of effort beyond what I'd normally do to achieve my goal.					
GC4	It wouldn't take much to make me abandon my goal					
GC5	It's hard to take a goal seriously					
GC6	There is much to be gained by trying to achieve a goal.					
GC7	No situation will stop me from pursuing this goal					

**SECTION A (f): Feedback Seeking Behaviour**

This section helps you describe your Feedback Seeking Behaviour as you perceive it. Please tick (✓) the appropriate box or correct response Using the scale: **1 =Never, 2=Rarely, 3:=Sometimes, 4:=Often, 5=Always,**

How would you rate your feedback seeking behavior?

	Statements	1	2	3	4	5
FSB1	I prefer to be told my overall work performance					
FSB2	I prefer to be told how I can improve my performance					
FSB3	I prefer not to be told how well I am doing on the job in general					
FSB4	It is important to know how my job performance compares to that of my co-workers.					
FSB5	I seek information from other co-workers about my work performance.					
FSB6	I seek feedback from my supervisor about potential for advancement within the company.					
FSB7	My supervisor's evaluation of my performance is important because he/she controls my future in this sector					

**Section B- Background Information**

1. Please indicate your Gender

Male  Female

2. Kindly indicate your Age bracket

18-25  26-33  34-41  42-49  50 and above

3. How long have you been working?

1-5 years  6-10 years  11-15 years  16-20years  21years above

4. How long have you worked within the insurance sector?

1-5 years  6-10 years  11-15 years  16-20years  21years above

5. Indicate your level of Education

Secondary  Professional  Diploma  First degree  Post graduate degree

***THANK YOU FOR PARTICIPATION***

### Appendix 3: Research Permit

Permit No : **NACOSTI/P/17/36470/15820**  
Date Of Issue : **8th March, 2017**  
Fee Recieved : **Ksh 2000**

**THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT:**  
**MS. ZIPPY MUKAMI NJAGI**  
**of MOI UNIVERSITY, 95408-80106**  
**MOMBASA, has been permitted to**  
**conduct research in Mombasa County**  
**on the topic: SALES FORCE**  
**PERSONALITY TRAITS AND SALES**  
**PERFORMANCE: THE MODERATED**  
**MEDIATION EFFECT OF FEEDBACK**  
**SEEKING BEHAVIOR AND GOAL**  
**COMMITMENT: A SURVEY OF INSURANCE**  
**AGENTS WITHIN THE COASTAL REGION**  
**IN KENYA**  
**for the period ending:**  
**7th March, 2018**



*[Signature]*  
**Director General**  
**National Commission for Science,**  
**Technology & Innovation**

*[Signature]*  
**Applicant's**  
**Signature**

## Appendix 4: Research Authorization



### NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY AND INNOVATION

Telephone: +254-20-2213471,  
2241349, 3310571, 2219420  
Fax: +254-20-318245, 318249  
Email: dg@nacosti.go.ke  
Website: www.nacosti.go.ke  
when replying please quote

9<sup>th</sup> Floor, Utalii House  
Uhuru Highway  
P.O. Box 30623-00100  
NAIROBI-KENYA

Ref. No.

Date:

**NACOSTI/P/17/36470/15820**

**8<sup>th</sup> March, 2017**

Zippy Mukami Njagi  
Moi University  
P.O. Box 3900 - 30100  
**ELDORET.**

#### **RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION**

Following your application for authority to carry out research on *“Sales Force personality traits and sales performance: The moderated mediation effect of feedback seeking behavior and goal commitment. A survey of Insurance agents within the coastal region in Kenya,”* I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to undertake research in **Mombasa County** for the period ending **7<sup>th</sup> March, 2018**.

You are advised to report to **the County Commissioner and the County Director of Education, Mombasa County** before embarking on the research project.

On completion of the research, you are expected to submit **two hard copies and one soft copy in pdf** of the research report/thesis to our office.


  
**DR. M. K. RUGUTT, PhD, HSC, OGW**  
**DIRECTOR-GENERAL/CEO**

Copy to:

The County Commissioner  
Mombasa County.

The County Director of Education  
Mombasa County.

**Appendix 5: Research Authorization – Regional Education Coordinator**



**REPUBLIC OF KENYA  
MINISTRY OF EDUCATION, SCIENCE & TECHNOLOGY  
STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION**

Telegrams: "SCHOOLING",  
Mombasa  
Telephone: Mombasa 2315327 / 2230052  
When replying please quote

REGIONAL COORDINATOR OF EDUCATION  
COAST REGION,  
P. O. BOX 90204 – 80100,  
MOMBASA.

Ref. RC/ED/GEN/5/26/1

3<sup>rd</sup> April, 2017

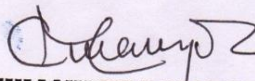
TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

**RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION**

This is to authorize Zippy Mukami Njagi from Moi Univeristy to carry out research on ***"Sales Force personality traits and sales performance: The moderated mediation effect of feedback seeking behavior and goal commitment. A survey of Insurance agents within the coastal region in Kenya,"*** for the period ending 7<sup>th</sup> March 2018.

Please give her the necessary assistance.


REGIONAL EDUCATION  
CO-ORDINATOR  
P. O. Box 90204, MOMBASA



**C. MWANYOHA NDEGWA  
FOR: REGIONAL COORDINATOR OF EDUCATION  
COAST REGION**



**Appendix 6: Research Authorization – County Commissioners Office**



**THE PRESIDENCY**  
*MINISTRY OF INTERIOR AND COORDINATION OF NATIONAL GOVERNMENT*

Telephone: Mombasa 2311201  
Tel. 0715 040444

County Commissioner's Office  
P.O. BOX 90424-80100  
**MOMBASA**

Email: [msacountycommissioner@yahoo.com](mailto:msacountycommissioner@yahoo.com)  
*When Replying please quote:*

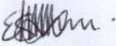
Ref. no. **MCC/ADM.25 VOL.1/16** 3<sup>rd</sup> April, 2017

All Deputy County Commissioners,  
**MOMBASA COUNTY.**

**RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION**

This is to authorize Zippy Mukami Njagi (NACOSTI/P/17/36470/15820) from Moi University, Eldoret to carry out research on **“Sales Force personality traits and sales performance: The moderated mediation effect of feedback seeking behavior and goal commitment. A survey of Insurance agents within the Coastal region in Kenya”** within Mombasa County for a period ending 7<sup>th</sup> March, 2018.

Any assistance given to her will be highly appreciated.

  
**ESTHER IDZA**  
**FOR: COUNTY COMMISSIONER**  
**MOMBASA COUNTY**

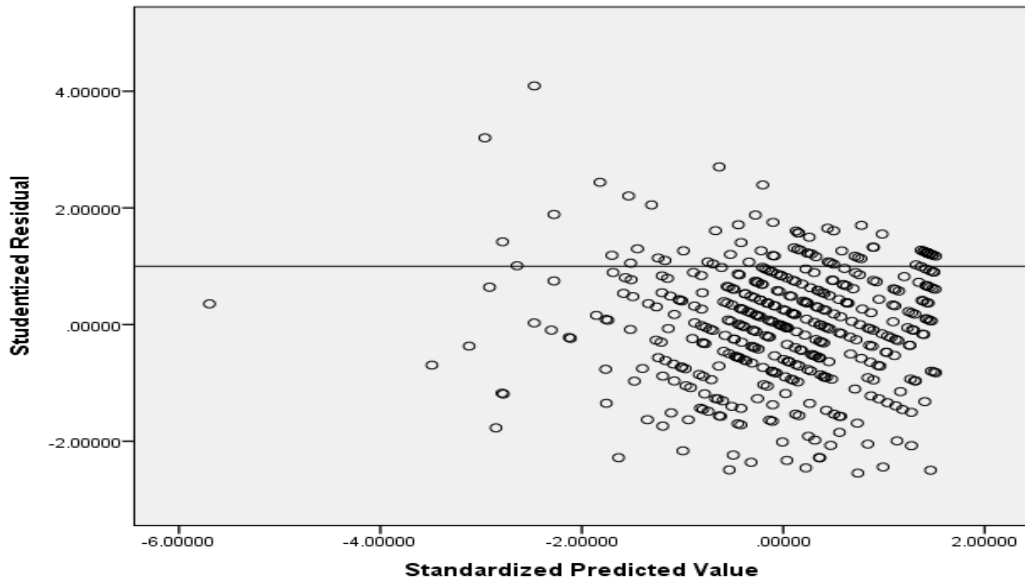
C.C.  
County Director of Education,  
**MOMBASA**



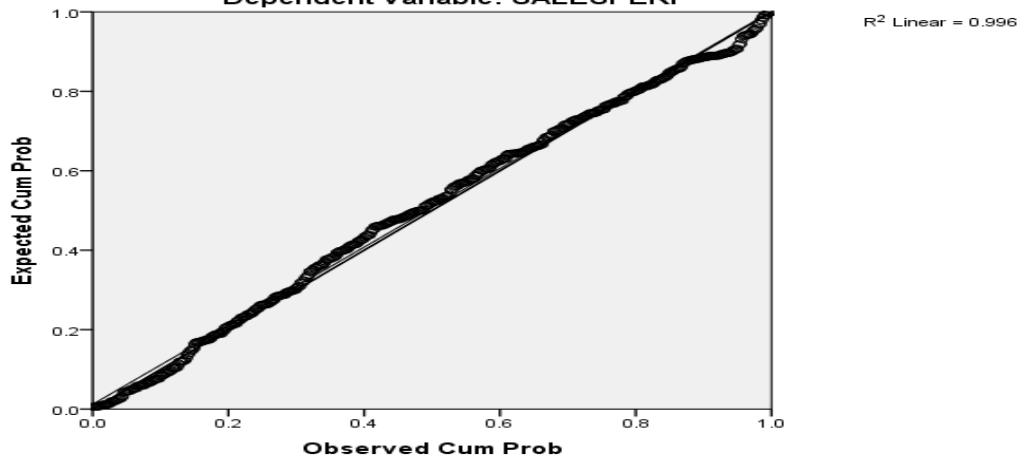
**Appendix 7: Insurance Companies with Branches in Mombasa**

<b>Company</b>	<b>Population of sales agent</b>	<b>Sample size p/1000*399</b>
1. Aar Insurance Kenya	15	6
2. African Merchant Assurance (Amaco)	10	4
3. Aig Insurance Company	10	4
4. Apa Insurance Company	35	14
5. Britam General Insurance	180	72
6. Cannon Assurance Company (Metro cannon)	10	4
7. Cic General Insurance Company	25	10
8. Corporate Insurance Company	10	4
9. Directline Assurance Company	10	4
10. Fidelity Shield Insurance	15	6
11. First Assurance Company	10	4
12. Ga Insurance Company	10	4
13. Gateway Insurance Company (Sanham)	15	6
14. Geminia Insurance Company	15	6
15. Heritage Insurance Company	30	11
16. Icea Lion General Insurance	50	20
17. Invesco Assurance Company	10	4
18. Jubilee Insurance Company	120	48
19. Kenindia Assurance Company	25	10
20. Kenya Orient Insurance	10	4
21. Madison Insurance Company	25	10
22. Mayfair Insurance Company	10	4
23. Occidental Insurance Company	10	4
24. Pacis Insurance Company	15	6
25. Phoenix Of East Africa	10	4
26. Resolution Health Insurance	15	6
27. Saham Assurance	15	6
28. Takaful Insurance Of Africa	15	6
29. The Kenyan Alliance Insurance	10	4
30. The Monarch Insurance	10	4
31. Trident Insurance Company	10	4
32. Uap Insurance Company	80	32
33. Xplico Insurance Company	10	4
34. Barclays Life Assurance	15	6
35. Old Mutual Assurance Company	80	32
36. Pan Africa Insurance Company	15	6
37. Pioneer Assurance Company	10	4
38. Prudential Life Assurance Kenya	15	6
39. Liberty Life Assurance Kenya	15	6
<b>Total</b>	<b>1000</b>	<b>399</b>

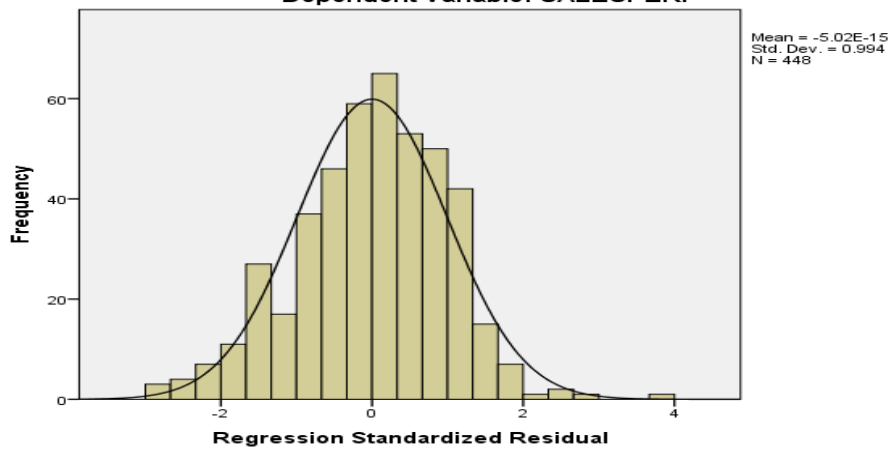
**Appendix 8: Homoscedasticity, Linearity and Normality Tests**



**Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual**  
**Dependent Variable: SALES PERF**



**Histogram**  
**Dependent Variable: SALES PERF**



## Appendix 9: Regression Results (Model 58)

Model = 58

Y = SALESPER

X = SELFEFF

M = GOALCOMM

W = FEEDBACK

Statistical Controls:

CONTROL= gender age working\_ worked\_s Edu\_leve

Sample size

448

\*\*\*\*\*

Outcome: GOALCOMM

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.4282	.1834	.2561	12.3238	8.0000	439.0000	.0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	-.1454	.1150	-1.2649	.2066	-.3714	.0805
SELFEFF	.2463	.0431	5.7104	.0000	.1615	.3311
FEEDBACK	.1324	.0349	3.7918	.0002	.0638	.2011
int_1	-.1141	.0438	-2.6029	.0096	-.2003	-.0279
gender	.1095	.0488	2.2408	.0255	.0135	.2055
age	-.0088	.0283	-.3104	.7564	-.0645	.0469
working_	-.0082	.0362	-.2255	.8217	-.0793	.0629
worked_s	.0305	.0369	.8270	.4087	-.0420	.1030
Edu_leve	-.0046	.0245	-.1859	.8526	-.0527	.0436

Product terms key:

int\_1 SELFEFF X FEEDBACK

\*\*\*\*\*

\*\*\*\*\*

Outcome: SALESPER

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.5590	.3125	.2664	22.1199	9.0000	438.0000	.0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3.7847	.1178	32.1196	.0000	3.5531	4.0163
GOALCOMM	.1536	.0508	3.0207	.0027	.0536	.2535
SELFEFF	.4403	.0444	9.9170	.0000	.3530	.5275
FEEDBACK	.0162	.0361	.4492	.6535	-.0547	.0871
int_2	-.0012	.0433	-.0266	.9788	-.0863	.0840
gender	-.0343	.0501	-.6837	.4946	-.1328	.0642
age	-.0514	.0289	-1.7825	.0754	-.1082	.0053
working_	.0699	.0370	1.8903	.0594	-.0028	.1425
worked_s	.0829	.0373	2.2234	.0267	.0096	.1561
Edu_leve	.0013	.0251	.0533	.9576	-.0481	.0507

Product terms key:

int\_2 GOALCOMM X FEEDBACK

\*\*\*\*\* DIRECT AND INDIRECT EFFECTS

\*\*\*\*\*

Direct effect of X on Y

Effect	SE	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
.4403	.0444	9.9170	.0000	.3530	.5275

Conditional indirect effect(s) of X on Y at values of the moderator(s):

Mediator

FEEDBACK	Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
----------	--------	---------	----------	----------

GOALCOMM	-.7280	.0509	.0260	.0056	.1077
GOALCOMM	.0000	.0378	.0159	.0135	.0769
GOALCOMM	.7280	.0249	.0204	.0005	.0804

Values for quantitative moderators are the mean and plus/minus one SD from mean.

Values for dichotomous moderators are the two values of the moderator.

\*\*\*\*\* ANALYSIS NOTES AND WARNINGS

\*\*\*\*\*

Number of bootstrap samples for bias corrected bootstrap confidence intervals:

5000

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:

95.00

NOTE: The following variables were mean centered prior to analysis:

SELFEFF GOALCOMM FEEDBACK

----- END MATRIX -----

Model = 58

Y = SALESPER

X = LOCUS

M = GOALCOMM

W = FEEDBACK

Statistical Controls:

CONTROL= gender age working\_ worked\_s Edu\_leve

Sample size

448

\*\*\*\*\*

\*\*\*\*\*

Outcome: GOALCOMM

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.3289	.1082	.2797	6.6552	8.0000	439.0000	.0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	-.1965	.1214	-1.6190	.1062	-.4351	.0420
LOCUS	-.0030	.0237	-.1285	.8978	-.0495	.0435
FEEDBACK	.2201	.0349	6.3066	.0000	.1515	.2887
int_1	-.0977	.0307	-3.1794	.0016	-.1581	-.0373
gender	.1175	.0512	2.2929	.0223	.0168	.2182
age	-.0118	.0296	-.3976	.6911	-.0700	.0465
working_	.0161	.0377	.4269	.6696	-.0581	.0903
worked_s	-.0028	.0381	-.0735	.9414	-.0776	.0720
Edu_leve	.0080	.0256	.3115	.7556	-.0423	.0583

Product terms key:

int\_1 LOCUS X FEEDBACK

\*\*\*\*\*

\*\*\*\*\*

Outcome: SALESPER

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.3987	.1590	.3259	9.1986	9.0000	438.0000	.0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3.7310	.1316	28.3510	.0000	3.4723	3.9896
GOALCOMM	.2843	.0543	5.2305	.0000	.1775	.3911
LOCUS	-.0168	.0253	-.6653	.5062	-.0666	.0329
FEEDBACK	.0900	.0391	2.3016	.0218	.0131	.1669

int_2	-.0368	.0480	-.7673	.4433	-.1312	.0575
gender	-.0420	.0556	-.7567	.4496	-.1513	.0672
age	-.0551	.0320	-1.7229	.0856	-.1180	.0078
working_	.0900	.0408	2.2028	.0281	.0097	.1702
worked_s	.0678	.0412	1.6457	.1005	-.0132	.1488
Edu_leve	.0252	.0277	.9075	.3646	-.0294	.0797

Product terms key:

int\_2 GOALCOMM X FEEDBACK

\*\*\*\*\* DIRECT AND INDIRECT EFFECTS  
\*\*\*\*\*

Direct effect of X on Y

Effect	SE	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
-.0168	.0253	-.6653	.5062	-.0666	.0329

Conditional indirect effect(s) of X on Y at values of the moderator(s):

Mediator

	FEEDBACK	Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
GOALCOMM	-.7280	.0212	.0189	-.0084	.0643
GOALCOMM	.0000	-.0009	.0083	-.0173	.0148
GOALCOMM	.7280	-.0191	.0097	-.0416	-.0039

Number of bootstrap samples for bias corrected bootstrap confidence intervals:  
5000

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:  
95.00

NOTE: The following variables were mean centered prior to analysis:  
LOCUS GOALCOMM FEEDBACK

----- END MATRIX -----

Model = 58

Y = SALESPER  
X = PROACIVE  
M = GOALCOMM  
W = FEEDBACK

Statistical Controls:

CONTROL= gender age working\_ worked\_s Edu\_leve

Sample size

448

\*\*\*\*\*  
\*\*\*\*\*

Outcome: GOALCOMM

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
Model	.4310	.1857	.2554	12.5171	8.0000	439.0000	.0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	-.1493	.1148	-1.3000	.1943	-.3750	.0764
PROACIVE	.2258	.0403	5.5964	.0000	.1465	.3050
FEEDBACK	.1357	.0347	3.9065	.0001	.0674	.2040
int_1	-.1087	.0381	-2.8522	.0045	-.1836	-.0338
gender	.0916	.0489	1.8726	.0618	-.0045	.1877
age	.0047	.0283	.1649	.8691	-.0509	.0602
working_	-.0256	.0364	-.7036	.4821	-.0971	.0459

worked\_s .0132 .0366 .3611 .7182 -.0586 .0850  
 Edu\_leve .0163 .0244 .6699 .5033 -.0316 .0642

Product terms key:

int\_1 PROACIVE X FEEDBACK

\*\*\*\*\*

\*\*\*\*\*

Outcome: SALESPER

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.4769	.2275	.2993	14.3296	9.0000	438.0000	.0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3.7672	.1249	30.1500	.0000	3.5216	4.0127
GOALCOMM	.1992	.0538	3.7027	.0002	.0935	.3050
PROACIVE	.2759	.0440	6.2705	.0000	.1894	.3624
FEEDBACK	.0411	.0383	1.0736	.2836	-.0341	.1163
int_2	-.0071	.0460	-1.1550	.2500	-.0975	.0832
gender	-.0553	.0532	-1.0396	.2991	-.1598	.0492
age	-.0442	.0306	-1.4439	.1495	-.1044	.0160
working_	.0612	.0394	1.5534	.1210	-.0162	.1387
worked_s	.0630	.0395	1.5965	.1111	-.0146	.1407
Edu_leve	.0298	.0265	1.1231	.2620	-.0223	.0819

Product terms key:

int\_2 GOALCOMM X FEEDBACK

\*\*\*\*\* DIRECT AND INDIRECT EFFECTS

\*\*\*\*\*

Direct effect of X on Y

Effect	SE	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
.2759	.0440	6.2705	.0000	.1894	.3624

Conditional indirect effect(s) of X on Y at values of the moderator(s):

Mediator

	FEEDBACK	Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
GOALCOMM	-.7280	.0623	.0247	.0166	.1135
GOALCOMM	.0000	.0450	.0152	.0205	.0816
GOALCOMM	.7280	.0285	.0191	.0038	.0774

Number of bootstrap samples for bias corrected bootstrap confidence intervals:

5000

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:

95.00

NOTE: The following variables were mean centered prior to analysis:  
 PROACIVE GOALCOMM FEEDBACK

----- END MATRIX -----

Model = 58

Y = SALESPER

X = PROACIVE  
M = GOALCOMM  
W = FEEDBACK

Statistical Controls:

CONTROL= gender age working\_ worked\_s Edu\_leve

Sample size

448

\*\*\*\*\*  
\*\*\*\*\*

Outcome: GOALCOMM

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.4310	.1857	.2554	12.5171	8.0000	439.0000	.0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	-.1493	.1148	-1.3000	.1943	-.3750	.0764
PROACIVE	.2258	.0403	5.5964	.0000	.1465	.3050
FEEDBACK	.1357	.0347	3.9065	.0001	.0674	.2040
int_1	-.1087	.0381	-2.8522	.0045	-.1836	-.0338
gender	.0916	.0489	1.8726	.0618	-.0045	.1877
age	.0047	.0283	.1649	.8691	-.0509	.0602
working_	-.0256	.0364	-.7036	.4821	-.0971	.0459
worked_s	.0132	.0366	.3611	.7182	-.0586	.0850
Edu_leve	.0163	.0244	.6699	.5033	-.0316	.0642

Product terms key:

int\_1 PROACIVE X FEEDBACK

\*\*\*\*\*  
\*\*\*\*\*

Outcome: SALESPER

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.4769	.2275	.2993	14.3296	9.0000	438.0000	.0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3.7672	.1249	30.1500	.0000	3.5216	4.0127
GOALCOMM	.1992	.0538	3.7027	.0002	.0935	.3050
PROACIVE	.2759	.0440	6.2705	.0000	.1894	.3624
FEEDBACK	.0411	.0383	1.0736	.2836	-.0341	.1163
int_2	-.0071	.0460	-.1550	.8769	-.0975	.0832
gender	-.0553	.0532	-1.0396	.2991	-.1598	.0492
age	-.0442	.0306	-1.4439	.1495	-.1044	.0160
working_	.0612	.0394	1.5534	.1210	-.0162	.1387
worked_s	.0630	.0395	1.5965	.1111	-.0146	.1407
Edu_leve	.0298	.0265	1.1231	.2620	-.0223	.0819

Product terms key:

int\_2 GOALCOMM X FEEDBACK

\*\*\*\*\* DIRECT AND INDIRECT EFFECTS  
\*\*\*\*\*

Direct effect of X on Y

Effect	SE	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
.2759	.0440	6.2705	.0000	.1894	.3624

Conditional indirect effect(s) of X on Y at values of the moderator(s):

Mediator

FEEDBACK	Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
----------	--------	---------	----------	----------

GOALCOMM	-.7280	.0623	.0247	.0174	.1158
GOALCOMM	.0000	.0450	.0154	.0189	.0807
GOALCOMM	.7280	.0285	.0199	.0041	.0835

Number of bootstrap samples for bias corrected bootstrap confidence intervals: 5000

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output: 95.00

NOTE: The following variables were mean centered prior to analysis:

PROACTIVE GOALCOMM FEEDBACK

----- END MATRIX -----



Model = 58  
 Y = SALESPER  
 X = PROACIVE  
 M = GOALCOMM  
 W = FEEDBACK

Statistical Controls:  
 CONTROL= gender age working\_ worked\_s Edu\_leve

Sample size  
 448

\*\*\*\*\*  
 \*\*\*\*\*

Outcome: GOALCOMM

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.4310	.1857	.2554	12.5171	8.0000	439.0000	.0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	-.1493	.1148	-1.3000	.1943	-.3750	.0764
PROACIVE	.2258	.0403	5.5964	.0000	.1465	.3050
FEEDBACK	.1357	.0347	3.9065	.0001	.0674	.2040
int_1	-.1087	.0381	-2.8522	.0045	-.1836	-.0338
gender	.0916	.0489	1.8726	.0618	-.0045	.1877
age	.0047	.0283	.1649	.8691	-.0509	.0602
working_	-.0256	.0364	-.7036	.4821	-.0971	.0459
worked_s	.0132	.0366	.3611	.7182	-.0586	.0850
Edu_leve	.0163	.0244	.6699	.5033	-.0316	.0642

Covariance matrix of regression parameter estimates

constant	PROACIVE	FEEDBACK	int_1	gender	age	working_	worked_s
Edu_leve							
constant	.0132	.0004	-.0002	.0001	-.0037	-.0009	.0002
-.0007	-.0016						
PROACIVE	.0004	.0016	-.0004	.0005	-.0002	.0001	-.0001
-.0001	.0000						
FEEDBACK	-.0002	-.0004	.0012	.0001	.0001	.0001	.0000
-.0001	.0000						
int_1	.0001	.0005	.0001	.0015	.0000	.0000	.0001
-.0002	.0000						
gender	-.0037	-.0002	.0001	.0000	.0024	-.0001	.0000
.0003	.0000						
age	-.0009	.0001	.0001	.0000	-.0001	.0008	-.0005
.0000	.0001						
working_	.0002	-.0001	.0000	.0001	.0000	-.0005	.0013
-.0008	.0000						
worked_s	-.0007	-.0001	-.0001	-.0002	.0003	.0000	-.0008
.0013	-.0001						
Edu_leve	-.0016	.0000	.0000	.0000	.0000	.0001	.0000
-.0001	.0006						

Product terms key:

int\_1 PROACIVE X FEEDBACK

\*\*\*\*\*  
 \*\*\*\*\*

Outcome: SALESPER

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.4769	.2275	.2993	14.3296	9.0000	438.0000	.0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3.7672	.1249	30.1500	.0000	3.5216	4.0127
GOALCOMM	.1992	.0538	3.7027	.0002	.0935	.3050
PROACTIVE	.2759	.0440	6.2705	.0000	.1894	.3624
FEEDBACK	.0411	.0383	1.0736	.2836	-.0341	.1163
int_2	-.0071	.0460	-.1550	.8769	-.0975	.0832
gender	-.0553	.0532	-1.0396	.2991	-.1598	.0492
age	-.0442	.0306	-1.4439	.1495	-.1044	.0160
working_	.0612	.0394	1.5534	.1210	-.0162	.1387
worked_s	.0630	.0395	1.5965	.1111	-.0146	.1407
Edu_leve	.0298	.0265	1.1231	.2620	-.0223	.0819

## Covariance matrix of regression parameter estimates

	GOALCOMM	PROACTIVE	FEEDBACK	int_2	gender	age
constant	.0156	.0005	.0003	-.0002	.0005	-.0044
working_	.0002	-.0009	-.0019			
worked_s	.0005	.0029	-.0006	-.0003	.0008	-.0003
Edu_leve	.0001	-.0001	-.0001			
GOALCOMM	.0005	.0029	-.0006	-.0003	.0008	-.0003
PROACTIVE	.0003	-.0006	.0019	-.0004	.0002	-.0001
FEEDBACK	-.0002	.0000	.0000			
int_2	-.0002	.0000	.0000	.0015	.0001	.0001
gender	.0001	.0008	-.0003	-.0003	.0008	-.0003
age	.0005	.0008	.0002	.0001	.0021	-.0001
working_	.0001	-.0002	-.0001			
worked_s	-.0044	-.0003	-.0001	.0001	-.0001	.0028
Edu_leve	-.0001	.0003	.0000			
GOALCOMM	-.0010	.0000	.0001	.0001	-.0001	-.0001
PROACTIVE	.0009	-.0006	.0000	.0001		
FEEDBACK	.0002	.0001	-.0002	.0000	.0001	.0000
int_2	-.0006	.0016	-.0009	-.0001		
gender	.0000	-.0009	-.0001	.0000	-.0001	.0003
age	.0000	.0016	-.0001	-.0001	-.0002	.0003
working_	-.0019	-.0001	.0000	.0000	-.0001	.0000
worked_s	.0001	-.0001	.0007			

## Product terms key:

int\_2 GOALCOMM X FEEDBACK

\*\*\*\*\* DIRECT AND INDIRECT EFFECTS \*\*\*\*\*

## Direct effect of X on Y

Effect	SE	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
.2759	.0440	6.2705	.0000	.1894	.3624

## Conditional indirect effect(s) of X on Y at values of the moderator(s):

## Mediator

	FEEDBACK	Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
GOALCOMM	-.7280	.0623	.0246	.0167	.1167
GOALCOMM	.0000	.0450	.0153	.0199	.0816
GOALCOMM	.7280	.0285	.0190	.0036	.0768

## Number of bootstrap samples for bias corrected bootstrap confidence intervals:

5000

## Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:

95.00

NOTE: The following variables were mean centered prior to analysis:

PROACTIVE GOALCOMM FEEDBACK

----- END MATRIX -----

Model = 1  
 Y = GOALCOMM  
 X = PROACTIVE  
 M = FEEDBACK

Sample size  
 448

\*\*\*\*\*  
 \*\*\*\*\*

Outcome: GOALCOMM

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.4211	.1773	.2551	31.8935	3.0000	444.0000	.0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	1.2768	.6097	2.0941	.0368	.0785	2.4751
FEEDBACK	.5841	.1619	3.6074	.0003	.2659	.9023
PROACTIVE	.6533	.1457	4.4853	.0000	.3671	.9396
int_1	-.1061	.0378	-2.8068	.0052	-.1803	-.0318

Product terms key:

int\_1 PROACTIVE X FEEDBACK

R-square increase due to interaction(s):

	R2-chng	F	df1	df2	p
int_1	.0146	7.8780	1.0000	444.0000	.0052

\*\*\*\*\*  
 \*\*\*\*\*

Conditional effect of X on Y at values of the moderator(s):

FEEDBACK	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
3.2996	.3034	.0411	7.3801	.0000	.2226	.3842
4.0275	.2262	.0396	5.7106	.0000	.1483	.3040
4.7555	.1489	.0544	2.7372	.0064	.0420	.2559

Values for quantitative moderators are the mean and plus/minus one SD from mean.

Values for dichotomous moderators are the two values of the moderator.

\*\*\*\*\*  
 \*\*\*\*\*

Data for visualizing conditional effect of X on Y

Paste text below into a SPSS syntax window and execute to produce plot.

DATA LIST FREE/PROACTIVEPERSONA FEEDBACK GOALCOMMIT.  
 BEGIN DATA.

3.5894	3.2996	4.2929
4.2507	3.2996	4.4935
4.9121	3.2996	4.6941
3.5894	4.0275	4.4409
4.2507	4.0275	4.5905
4.9121	4.0275	4.7400
3.5894	4.7555	4.5889
4.2507	4.7555	4.6874
4.9121	4.7555	4.7859

END DATA.

GRAPH/SCATTERPLOT=PROACTIVEPERSONA WITH GOALCOMMIT BY FEEDBACK.

\*\*\*\*\* ANALYSIS NOTES AND WARNINGS  
\*\*\*\*\*

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:  
95.00

----- END MATRIX -----

Model = 1  
Y = SALESPER  
X = SELFEFF  
M = GOALCOMM

Sample size  
448

\*\*\*\*\*  
\*\*\*\*\*

Outcome: SALESPER

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.5234	.2739	.2775	55.8314	3.0000	444.0000	.0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	1.9067	.8207	2.3233	.0206	.2938	3.5196
GOALCOMM	-.0051	.1841	-.0277	.9779	-.3669	.3567
SELFEFF	.2686	.2104	1.2768	.2023	-.1448	.6820
int_1	.0423	.0460	.9187	.3587	-.0482	.1327

Product terms key:

int\_1 SELFEFF X GOALCOMM

R-square increase due to interaction(s):

	R2-chng	F	df1	df2	p
int_1	.0014	.8440	1.0000	444.0000	.3587

\*\*\*\*\*  
\*\*\*\*\*

Conditional effect of X on Y at values of the moderator(s):

GOALCOMM	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
4.0201	.4386	.0484	9.0557	.0000	.3434	.5338
4.5751	.4621	.0440	10.4925	.0000	.3755	.5486
5.0000	.4800	.0501	9.5814	.0000	.3816	.5785

Data for visualizing conditional effect of X on Y

Paste text below into a SPSS syntax window and execute to produce plot.

DATA LIST FREE/SELFEFF GOALCOMMIT SALESPERF.

BEGIN DATA.

3.6805	4.0201	3.5004
4.2909	4.0201	3.7681
4.9014	4.0201	4.0359
3.6805	4.5751	3.5839
4.2909	4.5751	3.8660
4.9014	4.5751	4.1481
3.6805	5.0000	3.6479
4.2909	5.0000	3.9409
4.9014	5.0000	4.2340

END DATA.

GRAPH/SCATTERPLOT=SELFEFF WITH SALESPERF BY GOALCOMMIT.

\*\*\*\*\* ANALYSIS NOTES AND WARNINGS \*\*\*\*\*  
Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output: 95.00  
----- END MATRIX -----

## Appendix 10: Mediation Results (Model 4)

### Model 4 Mediating effect of Goal commitment on Self Efficacy and Sales performance

Run MATRIX procedure:

\*\*\*\*\* PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 3.2  
\*\*\*\*\*

Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D. [www.afhayes.com](http://www.afhayes.com)  
Documentation available in Hayes (2018). [www.guilford.com/p/hayes3](http://www.guilford.com/p/hayes3)

\*\*\*\*\*  
\*\*\*\*\*

Model : 4  
Y : SALESPER  
X : SELFEFF  
M : GOALCOMM

Covariates:  
gender age working\_ worked\_s Edu\_leve

Sample  
Size: 448

\*\*\*\*\*  
\*\*\*\*\*

OUTCOME VARIABLE:  
GOALCOMM

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.3729	.1391	.2688	11.8728	6.0000	441.0000	.0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3.0367	.2034	14.9266	.0000	2.6368	3.4365
SELFEFF	.3282	.0405	8.1006	.0000	.2485	.4078
gender	.1013	.0500	2.0254	.0434	.0030	.1996
age	-.0153	.0288	-.5302	.5962	-.0719	.0414
working_	.0007	.0370	.0185	.9853	-.0720	.0734
worked_s	.0232	.0372	.6225	.5339	-.0500	.0963
Edu_leve	-.0074	.0251	-.2943	.7686	-.0567	.0419

\*\*\*\*\*  
\*\*\*\*\*

OUTCOME VARIABLE:  
SALESPER

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.5587	.3122	.2653	28.5272	7.0000	440.0000	.0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	1.1559	.2480	4.6616	.0000	.6686	1.6432
SELFEFF	.4447	.0431	10.3081	.0000	.3599	.5294
GOALCOMM	.1582	.0473	3.3433	.0009	.0652	.2511
gender	-.0353	.0499	-.7070	.4800	-.1334	.0628
age	-.0527	.0286	-1.8405	.0664	-.1090	.0036

working_	.0705	.0368	1.9178	.0558	-.0017	.1428
worked_s	.0836	.0370	2.2606	.0243	.0109	.1564
Edu_leve	.0010	.0249	.0407	.9675	-.0480	.0500

\*\*\*\*\* DIRECT AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y \*\*\*\*\*

Direct effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
.4447	.0431	10.3081	.0000	.3599	.5294

Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
GOALCOMM	.0519	.0211	.0149	.0970

\*\*\*\*\* ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS \*\*\*\*\*

## Model 4 Mediating effect of Goal Commitment on Locus of control and Sales

### Performance

Run MATRIX procedure:

\*\*\*\*\* PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 3.2 \*\*\*\*\*

Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D. [www.afhayes.com](http://www.afhayes.com)  
 Documentation available in Hayes (2018). [www.guilford.com/p/hayes3](http://www.guilford.com/p/hayes3)

\*\*\*\*\*

Model : 4  
 Y : SALESPER  
 X : LOCUS  
 M : GOALCOMM

Covariates:

gender age working\_ worked\_s Edu\_leve

Sample

Size: 448

\*\*\*\*\*

OUTCOME VARIABLE:

GOALCOMM

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.1164	.0135	.3080	1.0089	6.0000	441.0000	.4188

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4.4650	.1474	30.2886	.0000	4.1753	4.7547
LOCUS	-.0262	.0244	-1.0730	.2839	-.0741	.0218
gender	.1015	.0537	1.8912	.0593	-.0040	.2071
age	-.0279	.0309	-.9038	.3666	-.0886	.0328
working_	.0228	.0395	.5762	.5648	-.0549	.1004

worked_s	.0137	.0398	.3442	.7309	-.0646	.0920
Edu_leve	.0089	.0269	.3317	.7402	-.0439	.0617

\*\*\*\*\*  
\*\*\*\*\*

OUTCOME VARIABLE:  
SALESPER

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.3835	.1471	.3290	10.8412	7.0000	440.0000	.0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	2.2767	.2674	8.5145	.0000	1.7511	2.8022
LOCUS	-.0185	.0252	-.7329	.4640	-.0681	.0311
GOALCOMM	.3318	.0492	6.7426	.0000	.2351	.4285
gender	-.0505	.0557	-.9060	.3654	-.1600	.0590
age	-.0640	.0319	-2.0031	.0458	-.1267	-.0012
working_	.0971	.0408	2.3761	.0179	.0168	.1773
worked_s	.0688	.0412	1.6710	.0954	-.0121	.1497
Edu_leve	.0228	.0278	.8207	.4123	-.0318	.0774

\*\*\*\*\* DIRECT AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y  
\*\*\*\*\*

Direct effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
-.0185	.0252	-.7329	.4640	-.0681	.0311

Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
GOALCOMM	-.0087	.0086	-.0259	.0081

\*\*\*\*\* ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS  
\*\*\*\*\*

#### Model 4: Mediation of Goal Commitment On Proactive and Sales Performance

\*\*\*\*\*  
\*\*\*\*\*

Model : 4  
Y : SALESPER  
X : PROACTIVE  
M : GOALCOMM

Covariates:

gender age working\_ worked\_s Edu\_leve

Sample

Size: 448

\*\*\*\*\*  
\*\*\*\*\*

OUTCOME VARIABLE:  
GOALCOMM

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.3728	.1390	.2688	11.8671	6.0000	441.0000	.0000



Model	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3.1467	.1925	16.3423	.0000	2.7682	3.5251
PROACTIVE	.3063	.0378	8.0985	.0000	.2320	.3806
gender	.0802	.0501	1.5995	.1104	-.0183	.1786
age	-.0062	.0289	-.2162	.8289	-.0630	.0505
working_	-.0170	.0372	-.4552	.6492	-.0901	.0562
worked_s	.0070	.0372	.1884	.8507	-.0661	.0802
Edu_leve	.0152	.0250	.6099	.5423	-.0339	.0644

\*\*\*\*\*

OUTCOME VARIABLE:

SALESPER

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.4747	.2254	.2988	18.2866	7.0000	440.0000	.0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	1.5843	.2572	6.1596	.0000	1.0788	2.0899
PROACTIVE	.2868	.0427	6.7114	.0000	.2028	.3708
GOALCOMM	.2124	.0502	4.2316	.0000	.1138	.3111
gender	-.0589	.0530	-1.1111	.2671	-.1630	.0453
age	-.0473	.0305	-1.5515	.1215	-.1071	.0126
working_	.0624	.0393	1.5902	.1125	-.0147	.1396
worked_s	.0641	.0392	1.6330	.1032	-.0130	.1412
Edu_leve	.0295	.0264	1.1187	.2639	-.0223	.0813

\*\*\*\*\* DIRECT AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y \*\*\*\*\*

Direct effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
.2868	.0427	6.7114	.0000	.2028	.3708

Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
GOALCOMM	.0651	.0220	.0258	.1111

\*\*\*\*\* ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS \*\*\*\*\*

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:  
95.0000

Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals:  
5000

NOTE: Variables names longer than eight characters can produce incorrect output.

Shorter variable names are recommended.

----- END MATRIX -----